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**Organizational Social Effectiveness:
An Annotated Bibliography**

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14. ABSTRACT *(Maximum 200 words)*: Due to an increased emphasis in the Army to improve leader development, an annotated bibliography was compiled to provide readers an introduction to a body of research on concepts related to organizational social effectiveness. An interdisciplinary literature search for articles on impression management, self-monitoring, social intelligence, social effectiveness, social competence, and political skill resulted in 120 articles selected for inclusion in this bibliography. References to each article are provided with a brief summary of the purpose and central conclusions. The list is divided into two sections, empirical articles, which report on work conducted for the purpose of exploring the construct and its function and relationship with other variables, and measurement and construct development articles, which consist of conceptual discussions and scale development articles. We discuss the relevance of organizational social effectiveness, particularly in regard the concepts investigated, to Army leaders in specific roles (e.g. advisors) and the Army's leadership model in general.

15. SUBJECT TERMS   Impression Management, Self-Monitoring, Social Intelligence, Social Effectiveness, Social Competence, Political Skill, Interpersonal Skills, Leadership

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ORGANIZATIONAL SOCIAL EFFECTIVENESS: AN ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

CONTENTS

CONTENTS (continued)

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Organizational Social Effectiveness:
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This annotated bibliography provides an introduction to a body of scientific research on concepts underlying organizational social effectiveness, with particular emphasis on the importance of understanding one's position in a social system and adapting to it. These concepts include impression management, self-monitoring, social intelligence, social effectiveness, social competence, and political skill. These concepts, while overlapping, all provide a useful perspective on operating successfully in a social system.

Each Army Soldier is an actor in a complex social system, which exerts influence on, and is influenced by, each member of that system. The Army, as an organization, has many social systems embedded within it and itself resides in a larger sociocultural system. Its members have intra- and inter-cultural interactions which can be enhanced by understanding the processes investigated in social effectiveness research. Strong, Brooks, Ramsden Zbylut, and Roan (2013) discuss the need for a shift from a micro (individuals) to a macro (social systems) perspective. Today's Army leaders must understand their role in sociocultural systems, as well as the interdependencies between those systems. In addition to understanding their role, leaders must optimize their influence to facilitate achieving results that depend on the cooperation of others.

Below, we describe some of the research conducted by academic and military scholars on the importance of organizational social effectiveness concepts for Army leaders in specific roles and situations (e.g., combat advisors, Joint-level staff officers). We will also discuss the relevance of these concepts to the Army leader in general.

Before we begin to discuss the research related to the concepts, a brief description of each concept is warranted. *Note: not all research included in this bibliography will conceptualize and define these concepts the same way*. This introduction should be understood as providing a baseline understanding to guide the reader's search for resources of the most relevance or interest.

Impression Management

Impression management is a process by which various tactics are used to influence the way one is viewed by others. Scholarship on this topic is divided, to some degree, on the extent to which impression management constitutes something undesirable, such as faking, exaggerating, or manipulating through deception. Baumeister (1989) and later Levashina and Campion (2007) argue for an interpretation of impression management as a continuum ranging from relatively benign tactics, which involve mirroring and other social facilitation tactics, to deceptive and manipulative tactics designed to distort the truth, such as overstating one's experiences or qualifications in an employment interview.

Therefore, depending on the type of impression management used and the intent behind it, this process may or may not be consistent with Army leader values. It is important to know the difference between honest and more deceptive impression management, as deceptive tactics may

be used against Army leaders. However, Army leaders may benefit from using impression management tactics in more honest ways. For example, impression management can facilitate establishing credibility and maintaining a good leadership presence, which are important to a leader's ability to influence.

Self-Monitoring

Self-monitoring is a concept, related to impression management, that is largely discussed in the social psychology literature. Self-monitoring is an individual's tendency to adapt their behavior (e.g., the traits they exhibit, opinions they share) to the nature of the social environment around them. Whereas impression management is an intentional effort to construct another's impression of you, self-monitoring is an individual difference among people in how much they tailor their behavior to their social surroundings, and is, therefore, more dispositional in nature. Specifically, Lennox and Wolfe (1984) define self-monitoring as (a) sensitivity to the expressive behaviors of others and (2) an ability to modify self-presentation. To clarify, low self-monitors are those who do not detect variations in a social context demonstrated by social cues from others or are unable to adequately alter their own behavior to match the social context. As with impression management, self-monitoring is a relevant construct for leadership. This is particularly true in the Army, as leaders regularly have to adapt their behavior between being a follower and leader, when interacting with superiors and subordinates, respectively.

Social Intelligence, Social Effectiveness, and Social Competence

A review of the social intelligence literature reveals numerous definitions of social intelligence. Further, the construct is not always clearly distinguished from emotional intelligence; specifically, there is continued debate on whether social intelligence is a component of emotional intelligence or vice versa. Likewise, there is literature on highly similar concepts using slightly different definitions and terminology, such "social effectiveness" (Hegestad & Morrison, 2008) and "social competence" (Schneider, Ackerman, & Kanfer, 1996). All these related fields (social intelligence, emotional intelligence, social effectiveness, and social competence) contribute to a body of research with inconsistent and blurred distinctions between concepts. Given a strong body of empirical research linking social intelligence and leadership, we focus primarily on the social intelligence literature. However, we note relevant work focusing on social effectiveness and social competence as well, to allow the reader to compare and contrast these concepts and decide which is of most relevance.

Marlowe (1986) defined social intelligence as "The ability to understand the feelings, thoughts, and behaviors of persons, including oneself, in interpersonal situations and to act appropriately upon that understanding" (p. 52). Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (1999) consolidated that definition to "ability at perceiving, assimilating, understanding, and managing emotions" (p. 268). Zaccaro et al. (1991) identified the criterion for high social intelligence as "not only successful self-management, but also the successful management of social units of which one is a part" (p. 325).

Political Skill

Political skill is defined as "the ability to effectively understand others at work and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance one's personal and/or organizational objectives" (Ferris et al., 2005, p. 127,). Political skill is multidimensional in nature, comprised of four dimensions:
- Social astuteness - the ability to observe and be attuned to others in diverse social situations.
- Interpersonal influence - a personal style that involves exerting influence on others.
- Networking ability - the ability to develop and utilize diverse networks of people.
- Apparent sincerity - a level of integrity, authenticity, sincerity, and genuineness.

Importance to Army Leaders

We begin our discussion of the importance of these concepts with some examples of Army positions that rely on organizational social effectiveness for mission completion. We will then discuss the alignment of these concepts with the Army's requirements for leaders in general.

Security Force Assistance/Combat Advising

As one of the most important mission sets for the U.S. military now and, likely, into the future, security force assistance is the ideal place to begin detailing specific ways in which organizational social effectiveness is important to the Army (Cone, 2013). A comprehensive analysis of the "human dimension of advising" (Ramsden Zbylut, Metcalf, McGowan, Beemer, Brunner, & Vowels, 2009) revealed impression management to be the most important skill category associated with effective advising. Specifically, survey results from a sample of advisors deployed to Iraq and Afghanistan showed that, of 42 knowledge, skill, and ability (KSA) categories, the two most critical were establishing credibility with a counterpart and serving as a positive role model. These two KSAs emphasize that advisors' performance depends significantly on the way they are viewed by others, which aligns closely with impression management and self-monitoring. Results also indicated that the more an advisor reported engaging in these two behavioral categories, the more the counterpart was perceived to have been receptive and engaged in the advisor mission over the course of the assignment, a critical outcome for any advisor.

The importance of advisors' interpersonal skills was further demonstrated by Phelps, Ramsden Zbylut, and Brunner (2009) in research which examined how the interpersonal skills exhibited by advisors related to perceptions held by their host nation counterparts. Specifically, Phelps and colleagues learned that Iraqi counterparts' perceptions of their advisors' interpersonal skills were strongly correlated with counterpart satisfaction and perceptions of that advisor's effectiveness. Phelps and colleagues concluded that a balance must be maintained between being effective in advising and leaving the counterpart satisfied with the interaction, a balance which, the authors showed requires a wide set of interpersonal skills. These skills include interpersonal facilitation, networking ability, interpersonal influence, sincerity, social skills, and inspiration, which align with the concepts of social competence, social effectiveness, and political skill.

3

Due to the nature of the advisor mission (see U.S. Department of the Army, 2009), security force assistance is one of the most obvious mission sets in which cross-cultural competence is crucial. The need for greater cross-cultural competence among Soldiers has been researched widely since the post-invasion period of Operation Iraqi Freedom. Abbe, Gulick, and Herman (2007) described the "culture-general" skills needed by Soldiers to adapt to missions involving interactions with a novel foreign culture. These skills include interpersonal skills, mental flexibility, and self-regulation. Interpersonal skills align with the notion of social effectiveness and competence, while self-regulation coincides with the concept of self-monitoring.

Brigade Command

Organizational social effectiveness is also an important element for broader categories of Army positions. A recently developed competency model for brigade commanders identified the competencies needed for successful brigade command. These competencies were categorized as operational skills, leadership skills, personal capabilities, and knowledge base (Wolters, O'Shea, Ford, Fleisher, Adeniyi, Conzelman, & Webster, 2011). The list of personal capabilities includes the "ability to regulate and monitor one's emotions" (p. 46) and "self-awareness and self-understanding" (p. 46). These concepts align with that of self-monitoring, in the focus on awareness of oneself as a part of a social system and a willingness and ability to tailor one's behavior to maximize effectiveness in that system.

The Wolters et al. (2011) competency model also describes the leadership skills required of brigade commanders, most (if not all) of which clearly require social intelligence, effectiveness, and competence, as well as political skill. In particular, the need to build and leverage the strengths of teams, build consensus, influence inside and outside the chain of command, and develop a positive command climate all require social effectiveness. Brigade commanders operate at the organizational leadership level (p. 3-7, U.S. Department of the Army, 2006), therefore it follows that organizational social effectiveness is a major part of Brigade command. Furthermore, Brigade commanders may have to apply these skills outside of the organizations they lead, employing political skills when influencing outside the chain of command and working in Joint, Interagency, Intergovernmental, and Multi-National (JIIM) operations.

Strategic Leadership

The concepts of organizational social effectiveness are also reflected in the competencies for strategic leadership. Wong, Gerras, Kidd, Pricone, and Swengroe (2003) provide a framework for the competencies needed by strategic leaders. This framework includes six "metacompetencies:" identity, mental agility, cross-cultural savvy, interpersonal maturity, world-class warrior, and professional astuteness. In this instance, identity is used to refer to a developed level of self-awareness, including one's own strengths and weaknesses, but also continued development over time in matching one's abilities and values to the demands of the Army. This is consistent with the concepts of organizational social effectiveness in focusing on

understanding how to fit into a social context and optimize one's role in it. In addition to the identity competency, the metacompetency of interpersonal maturity very clearly aligns with social intelligence and effectiveness. Meanwhile, professional astuteness focuses on the need for strategic leaders to align their goals with that of their profession, another example of the need for leaders to be aware of and influence their organizational context.

Joint Forces

In addition to strategic leadership, research on the necessary competencies of Joint leaders is consistent with a need for organizational social effectiveness. An analysis of the leadership competencies required of Joint leaders includes three critical competencies: building trust, communicating, and critical thinking (Sands, 2008). Building trust requires a leader to be aware of how he or she is viewed by peers in order to gauge whether mutual trust has been established. In Joint contexts, disparate cultures (e.g., Soldiers, Sailors, Marines, Airmen, etc.) are brought together and differences in values and norms can create obstacles (Ciancolo, LaVoie, Foltz, & Pierce, 2009). Furthermore, in JIIM environments, even greater cultural differences are likely to exist. Because trust is not always, if ever, a default state in this environment, it is incumbent on joint leaders to be aware of the social context and their impact on it, and maintain the ability to self-regulate and manage the impressions they give to others.

Non-Commissioned Officers

Organizational social effectiveness, particularly political skill, are crucial to leaders at the highest levels. However, the Army group that may rely the most on organizational social effectiveness is the Noncommissioned officer corps. NCOs are commonly referred to as the backbone of the Army, and for good reason. As leaders at the tactical, small-unit level, these men and women are the direct leaders – "face-to-face or first-line leadership" – of the Soldier population (p. 3-7, U.S. Department of the Army, 2006). These leaders rely greatly on organizational social effectiveness, as they balance mission and training responsibilities with taking care of Soldiers. NCOs are simultaneously responsible for maintaining discipline and standards while maintaining team cohesion and morale. NCOs fill a demanding liaison role between the Army organization and individual Soldiers, known in doctrine as the "NCO support channel" (p. 2-17, U.S. Department of the Army, 2002). NCOs represent and defend the needs of Soldiers to the commander and the Army as a whole, while simultaneously representing the standards and discipline required by the Army. This presents a difficult impression management task of caring for and being a resource to Soldiers while also setting the example and enforcing standards and enacting discipline when necessary.

Army Leaders in General

We believe organizational social effectiveness concepts are especially critical for some specific Army roles and mission sets, as discussed above. However, they are also relevant in a general sense to all Army leaders. Wisecarver, Schneider, Foldes, Cullen, and Ramsden Zbylut (2011) investigated the KSAs required for military leader influence. This valuable research provides a comprehensive view of the influence tactics used by military leaders, along with a

discussion of sources of power and contextual factors. One of the major categories of influence tactics mentioned by Wisecarver et al. is impression management. Wisecarver et al. also mention proactive influence and persuasion, processes which rely heavily on the social effectiveness of a leader.

There is plenty of content in doctrine regarding the need for these constructs, particularly in ADRP 6-22, Army Leadership (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012). The Leader Requirements Model lists attributes (what a leader is) and core leader competencies (what a leader does). Table 1 provides a summary of the most relevant aspects of the model – reproduced from Tables 4-1 (p. 4-2), 5-1 (p. 5-5), 6-3 (p. 6-10), 6-4 (p. 6-12), and 7-1 (p. 7-5) – to the organizational constructs reviewed here.

Table 1. *Content from Army Leadership Requirements Model*

Attributes		
Presence		
	Military and professional bearing	● Possessing a commanding presence ● Projecting a professional image of authority
Intellect		
	Mental agility	● Flexibility of mind; the ability to break habitual thought patterns ● Anticipating or adapting to uncertain or changing situations. ● The ability to apply multiple perspectives and approaches
	Interpersonal tact	● The capacity to understand interactions with others. ● Being aware of how others see you and sensing how to interact with them effectively. ● Conscious of character, reactions, and motives of self and others and how they affect interactions.
Competencies		
Lead		
	Extends influence beyond chain of command	● Negotiates, builds consensus, and resolves conflict
	Leads by example	● Displays character ● Exemplifies the Warrior Ethos
Develop		
	Creates a positive environment	● Fosters teamwork, cohesion, cooperation, and loyalty (esprit de corps)

Among the attributes most relevant to organizational social effectiveness are *presence* and *intellect*. Presence involves an aspect of self-awareness, as well as the ability to inspire others and set the example. Core leader competencies of *lead* and *develop* both require leaders to

interact with others and exert control over the social environment. Specifically, *leading by example* very clearly aligns with the notion of adapting one's behavior to the social context and maintaining awareness over the way you are perceived by others.

Moving beyond doctrine, academic research on military leadership also demonstrates the importance of perceptions and impressions to effective leadership. Blass and Ferris (2007) present a conceptual model of how mentoring, political skill, contextual learning, and adaptability contribute to military leaders' ability to control and optimize their reputation. Schneider and Johnson (2005) present a thorough argument for the importance of social competence among Army officers and investigated predictors of socially competent behavior among Army leaders. This research is discussed in greater detail in the appendices of this document.

Academic research on non-military leadership also references the organizational social effectiveness constructs. Bass (1990) argues that the ability of a leader to successfully influence others is affected by others' impressions of the leader. Further, being perceived as a leader facilitates the acceptance of ideas, produces strong and effective coalition relationships, and leads to higher levels of commitment and compliance from those above and below in the leader's organization (Jackall, 1988; Lord, Foti, & DeVader, 1984; Pfeffer, 1981). Being recognized and identified as a leader has the effect of increasing an individual's social power, their ability to influence others, and suggests that they are more causally important in producing desirable outcomes (Cronshaw & Lord, 1987; Jackall, 1988).

Conclusion

It is apparent that, in a social system as complex as the Army and driven by individual leadership shown at all levels, skills related to social effectiveness in an organization are of great importance. From the direct leadership of NCOs to the organizational leadership of Brigade commanders and the strategic leadership of our highest ranking officers, organizational social effectiveness is a crucial aspect of performance. Furthermore, leadership in JIIM and SFA environments depends a great deal on the social effectiveness of individual Soldiers. Therefore, in the interest of Army leader self-development and institutional or academic research, we present a resource for those hoping to learn more about these concepts. Two appendices are provided listing references to relevant publications, with brief article summaries. Appendix A covers empirical articles and Appendix B covers measurement and construct development articles. The prior refers to research which investigates the relationships between the focal concept and other variables of interest. These works primarily serve to place the concepts in a context of other factors that drive behavior or to investigate antecedent conditions that predict levels of these variables. The measurement and construct development articles describe work done to develop the concepts, operationally define them, produce methods to measure them, and refine theoretical conclusions about them. References in both sections will be of use to anyone hoping to learn more about these concepts. Summaries for each article are provided that cover the article's purpose, general methodology, and major conclusions. In the interest of limiting the scope of this bibliography, we primarily include literature which places the organizational social effectiveness constructs at or near the center of their focus.

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Organizational Social Effectiveness:
An Annotated Bibliography

Appendix A: Empirical Articles

Impression Management

1. **Gurevitch, Z. (1985). The receiver's dilemma: Impressions formed in response to impression management.** *Basic and Applied Social Psychology, 6*(2), 145-157.

   This article investigated the potential dilemma inherent in an impression management (IM) situation wherein a receiver reacts positively to the impression being created, but negatively to the recognized attempt at engaging in IM. The author faults research to date for not addressing this dilemma, but rather evaluating IM efforts in terms of only success or failure. In their study of IM, two conditions were used – ordinary self-presentation and tactical (IM-enhanced) self-presentation. The study group in question tended to view obvious efforts to engage in IM as "ego-defensive" (a covering up of weakness), not ego-enhancing. Furthermore, the results showed tactical self-presentation efforts were judged as more manipulative and less sociable. The impression manager was judged much more negatively in some traits, such as intelligence, depth, and uniqueness. Thus, the person was seen not only as more manipulative and less sociable, but also as having less ability. Implications of this study include the need to jointly consider the reactions of an IM audience to the impression created and to the risk of the attempt being recognized and viewed as manipulative or sociable.

2. **Leary, M., Robertson, R., Barnes, B., & Miller, R. (1986). Self-presentations of small group leaders: Effects of role requirements and leadership orientation.** *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51*(4), 742-748.

   This research investigated how situational pressures lead leaders to adopt a task- or relationship-oriented leadership style. Leaders of ad hoc groups were led to believe that either a task-oriented or relationship-oriented approach would be most effective in facilitating their group's performance; then, the leaders' self-presentations to other group members were assessed. In the first study, subjects who thought a task-oriented leader would be effective conveyed images that portrayed them as possessing task-relevant attributes to a greater degree than subjects who thought a relationship-oriented leader was needed. In the second study, effects were obtained on both task and interpersonal self-presentations. Subjects who thought the optimal leader to be task-oriented rated themselves higher on task-relevant dimensions, but lower on interpersonal attributes than did subjects who thought a relationship-oriented leader was required. Results of the two studies supported the hypothesis that leaders manage their impressions to appear to be the kind of leader who they believe will be effective in the current situation. This research demonstrates that at least some leaders follow a contingency-based model of leadership behavior, rather than maintaining a constant leadership "style."

3. **Gardner, W., & Martinko, M. (1988). Impression management in organizations.** *Journal of Management, 14*(2), 321-338.

This theoretical article advances several research propositions (i.e., testable hypotheses) regarding the cognitive, motivational, affective, behavioral, and situational factors involved in impression management (IM). Specifically, 27 propositions are set forth about the effects and interrelationships of each of these factors in the IM process. These factors are organized around the environment, the actor engaging in IM, the audience being engaged with, the specific situational context, and the IM behavior itself. Environmental factors include physical setting, organizational culture, and nature of work. Actor-related factors include personal characteristics (e.g., appearance, status, power, capabilities), cognitions (e.g., self-concept, self-efficacy, cognitive scripts, role expectations), personality (e.g., need for approval, self-monitoring), motives, and affective states. Audience-related factors are generally the same as the actor-related factors, with the addition of the audience size. Situational factors include actor and audience definitions of the situation, along with formality, favorability, familiarity, and ambiguity of the situation. Finally, IM behavior factors include the manner of presentation (e.g., verbal, nonverbal, artifactual), purposiveness, authenticity, positiveness, assertiveness, and teamwork. The important take-aways from this article include the many aspects of IM that exist to be studied and directions for inquiry in empirical research.

4. **Liden, R., & Mitchell, T. (1988). Ingratiatory behaviors in organizational settings.** *Academy of Management Review, 13*(4), 572-587.

The article provided a review of ingratiation use in organizational settings, including upward influence, organizational politics, and impression management. The authors defined ingratiation as involving the behaviors invoked for the purpose of positively shaping the evaluations of relevant others. The authors defined and distinguished ingratiation from other related, but not identical, constructs. A dynamic model of the process was presented, focusing on causes of ingratiation, choice of strategy, specific behaviors, target's reactions, and outcomes. It was suggested that future research needs to explore the level of conscious awareness in ingratiation, the relative weight of risk assessment factors, the influence of timing, and the impact of ingratiation on organizational decisions. This article contributes to the theoretical understanding of an impression management tactic, ingratiation, and provides a context for research on its occurrence and influence within an organization.

5. **Giacalone, R., & Riordan, C. (1990). Effect of self-presentation on perceptions and recognition in an organization.** *Journal of Psychology: Interdisciplinary and Applied, 124*(1), 25-38.

This article examined the effect of self-presentation on perceptions and recognition within an organizational context. Specifically, it considered two acquisitive self-presentational tactics: modesty and disclosing obstacles. A total of 104 undergraduates were asked to read a presentation given by a fictitious male or female project manager who had made a significant discovery. Then, the undergraduates evaluated one of two self-presentational tactics used by the managers. The tactics used affected the credit given to the manager, the perceived difficulty of

what he or she did, and the suggested recognition for the manager. Describing the obstacles involved resulted in more credit for the managers than in giving a modest presentation; however, the project was not viewed as more difficult for the managers when the obstacles were described. This research contributes to the understanding of how performance perceptions can be influenced by the context in which information about performance is presented.

6. **Leary, M., & Kowalski, R. (1990). Impression management: A literature review and two-component model. *Psychological Bulletin, 107*(1), 34-47.**

The authors provide a review of the impression management literature, using a two-component model framework. The model's first component is impression motivation, defined as the degree to which people are motivated to influence how others see them. This motivation is based on the relevance of the impression to the goal, the value of the desired outcomes, and the discrepancy between the current and desired impressions. The second component is impression construction, defined as the impressions that people intend to convey. This component is based on self-concept, desired and undesired identity images, role constraints, target's values, and current social image. This two-component model was designed to provide clarity in the literature, as well as address controversial issues and direct future research for understanding impression management.

7. **Wayne, S., & Ferris, G. (1990). Influence tactics, affect, and exchange quality in supervisor-subordinate interactions: A laboratory experiment and field study. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 75*(5), 487-499.**

This research tested a model of the relationships between impression management (IM) tactics, affect, and quality of leader-member exchange (LMX). Specifically, the authors tested the hypothesis that subordinate impression-management tactics affect LMX quality indirectly through liking and performance ratings, while objective performance influences LMX quality solely through performance ratings. In Study 1, undergraduates completed assessments of liking, performance, and exchange quality after interacting with a research confederate assigned to a subordinate role who engaged in high or low IM and performed at a high, average, or low level of competence.

Results were consistent with the proposed model. In Study 2, bank employees rated how frequently they engaged in each of 24 impression-management behaviors. Factor analysis revealed three types of tactics: job-focused, self-focused, and supervisor-focused tactics. The employees' direct supervisors completed assessments of liking, performance, and exchange quality. Results indicated that supervisor-focused tactics were related to supervisor liking of subordinates, which in turn was related to exchange quality. However, self-focused tactics were not related to performance ratings, whereas job-focused tactics were negatively related to performance ratings. Supervisor-focused tactics were positively related to performance ratings only in the laboratory setting. Supervisor-focused tactics were the only category of tactics found to influence LMX via feelings of liking the subordinate, as proposed. The relationships of any tactic category with performance ratings were inconsistent. Take-aways from this study are that not all IM looks the same and that there are differential effects on leader-follower relationships.

8. **Morrison, E., & Bies, R. (1991). Impression management in the feedback-seeking process: A literature review and research agenda.** *Academy of Management Review, 16*(3), 522-541.

This article provides a theoretical framework for existing and future research on impression management (IM) in the feedback-seeking process. The decision to seek feedback depends on assessment of how this act will be interpreted by others and how the content of feedback will affect one's public image. The article discusses IM opportunities, costs and how public image concerns influence form and frequency of feedback inquiry. The authors outline 16 propositions regarding several topics concerning the interplay between feedback-seeking behavior and IM concerns. The authors discuss IM as a factor driving feedback-seeking behavior, including when to seek feedback, in what manner, and from whom. The authors also discuss situational and dispositional influences on how much IM concerns influence feedback-seeking behavior. Overall, the article presents a framework for IM in the feedback seeking process that considers (a) two distinct mechanisms through which feedback seeking has an impact on impressions, (b) IM opportunities as well as costs, and (c) how public image concerns influence the form and frequency of feedback inquiry.

9. **Patterson, M. L., Churchill, M. E., Farag, F., & Borden, E. (1991). Impression management, cognitive demand, and interpersonal sensitivity.** *Current Psychology: A Journal for Diverse Perspectives on Diverse Psychological Issues, 10*(4), 263-271.

The primary purpose of this article was to explore the interrelationships among impression management (IM), cognitive demand, and interpersonal sensitivity. Specifically, the authors proposed that constructing an unfavorable impression in an interpersonal interaction would present greater cognitive demand (due to the unusual circumstance of attempting to generate an unfavorable impression) and make it harder to draw accurate inferences about the target. The study examined both direct perspectives (how the perceiver rated the target compared to how the target rated him or herself) and meta-perspectives (the perceiver's rating of "my partner thought I felt" compared to the target's rating of the perceiver). Results suggested that those seeking to construct a favorable impression were better at meta-perspective judgments than those constructing an unfavorable impression. The favorable impression group, who presumably had a lower cognitive load, recalled more about the interaction (e.g., details, more descriptive notes). The authors also examined verbal vs. nonverbal communication, finding that if verbal information was inconsistent with nonverbal information, the observer was less able to process the verbal information correctly. The results of this study suggest that a difficult IM task reduces accuracy in interpersonal perceptions.

10. **Ashford, S., & Northcraft, G. (1992). Conveying more (or less) than we realize: The role of impression-management in feedback-seeking.** *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 53*(3), 310-334.

This paper explored impression formation and feedback-seeking, and asked two primary research questions. First, do perceived impression management (IM) costs affect a person's decision to seek feedback. Second, do observers use a person's decision to seek feedback (or not)

in their impression of that person? In order to address these two questions, two investigations were conducted. Sample 1 included 67 undergraduate psychology students and was designed to assess the degree to which people sought feedback when being observed. From this study, it was found that people tended to seek less feedback when they were observed and that they also responded to situational norms regarding the appropriate frequency with which feedback should be sought. In the second sample, conducted via surveys received from 312 managers, it was found that feedback-seeking was viewed more positively when individuals had "superior" performance histories rather than "only average" performance histories. Together, these studies demonstrate that feedback seeking is accompanied by IM concerns by the seeker. Furthermore, those concerns are warranted, as feedback seeking is viewed differently by supervisors depending on the performance history of the feedback seeker.

11. **Wayne, S., & Green, S. (1993). The effects of leader-member exchange on employee citizenship and impression management behavior.** *Human Relations, 46*(12), 1431-1440.

This research examined the relationship between leader–member exchange (LMX) and two types of employee behavior: citizenship behavior (altruism and compliance with rules) and impression management (IM; attempts to influence/shape another's opinion of you). LMX is a concept of leadership as a one-on-one exchange between a leader and follower that can vary in quality. Data were collected from 73 nurses and 25 nurse managers. Nurse managers rated their relationships with subordinates in terms of LMX quality. Nurses completed a survey concerning LMX and their employee organization citizenship behavior and IM behavior. LMX quality was related to altruism, but not to compliance behavior. In regard to IM, LMX quality was positively related to other-focused IM (e.g., ingratiation, adopting similar attitudes as a target); however, it was not related to job-focused (e.g., describing one's job as very important or difficult) or self-focused (e.g., bragging about accomplishments or characteristics) IM. An implication for leadership research is that, of the IM tactics, other-focused forms may be the most effective in facilitating a positive leader-exchange relationship.

12. **Eastman, K. (1994). In the eyes of the beholder: An attributional approach to ingratiation and organizational citizenship behavior.** *Academy of Management Journal, 37*(5), 1379-1391.

The author contends in this article that although the behaviors demonstrated through ingratiation and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs; discretionary behaviors benefiting the organization that are not formally rewarded) are similar, supervisors respond differently to depending upon how the behaviors are attributed. Participants included 91 master's level business students who responded to questionnaires based on fictional behavioral logs of five male employees. Participants provided written responses to questions about their attributions of the behavior depicted in the logs. These responses were content analyzed to determine whether they were attributed to ingratiation or OCB. The logs were experimentally manipulated to manipulate consistency (behavioral consistency over time), distinctiveness (behavioral consistency across targets), and consensus (behavioral consistency across logs). Results indicated these manipulations did not greatly influence attributions. However, employees attributed with

greater OCB received greater rewards than employees attributed with greater ingratiation behaviors or no extra role behaviors. Implications of this research are that OCBs are more likely to be rewarded if they are not perceived as ingratiation.

13. **Rao, A., Schmidt, S., & Murray, L. (1995). Upward impression management: Goals, influence strategies, and consequences.** *Human Relations, 48*(2), 147-167.

This study examined the antecedents, process, and consequences of influence strategies in upward impression management (IM) among managers and subordinates. Subordinates were queried on their goals and strategies for using IM. Goals included assistance with their jobs, benefits, better appraisals, managerial performance, and acceptance of new ideas. Subordinates' strategies varied with their IM goals and included ingratiation, bargaining, and assertiveness. Managerial appraisals were based on their impressions of their subordinates and on perceptions of their influence style. While subordinates may believe that ingratiation will help them get better appraisals, using coalitions appeared to lead to favorable impressions and appraisals. Subordinate assertiveness appeared to lead to unfavorable impressions and subsequently lower performance appraisals, regardless of the situational context. Overall, this study illustrated that subordinates had a wide range of IM goals and strategies, but their strategies did not always have the intended effects on their leaders.

14. **Stevens, C. K., & Kristof, A. L. (1995). Making the right impression: A field study of applicant impression management during job interviews.** *Journal of Applied Psychology, 80*(5), 587-606.

This study examined the use and effect of impression management (IM) tactics on interviewer evaluations and outcomes. IM was defined as "conscious or unconscious attempts to control the images that are projected in… social interactions" (p. 588). The IM tactics assessed were assertive (i.e., ingratiation, self-promotion) and defensive (i.e., excuses, justifications) verbal statements. The authors hypothesized that (a) applicants would use more assertive than defensive IM tactics during actual job interviews, (b) applicants would use more self-promotion than ingratiation tactics during actual job interviews, and (c) applicant's IM tactics would be positively related to interviewers' evaluations and interview outcomes, even after controlling for GPA, gender, and job type. In order to test these hypotheses, a study was conducted where 106 actual interviews were video-recorded and coded for applicants' IM behaviors. Data was also provided by applicants and interviewers through the use of post-interview surveys. Results confirmed all three hypotheses. Overall, this study extended prior research in that it identified the types of IM behaviors actually exhibited in interviews, and it established a relationship between applicants' IM tactics and actual interview outcomes.

15. **Wayne, S., & Liden, R. (1995). Effects of impression management on performance ratings: A longitudinal study.** *Academy of Management Journal, 38*(1), 232-260.

This research involved a longitudinal study examining a model of the effect of impression management (IM) on performance ratings. The model proposes that subordinates' self- and supervisor-focused IM behaviors (along with demographic similarity) influence

performance ratings through supervisor liking of, and perceived similarity to, a subordinate. Data collected from supervisor–subordinate dyads supported the overall model and several of its specified relationships. In particular, supervisor-focused IM was positively related to both supervisor liking and perceived similarity. Additionally, IM behavior had a significant, indirect impact on performance ratings. Overall, the research highlighted the influence of IM on performance ratings and the role of the similarity-attraction paradigm in conveying this effect.

16. Crant, J. (1996). Doing more harm than good: When is impression management likely to evoke a negative response? *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 26*(16), 1454-1471.

This article investigated situations in which impression management (IM) tactics may unintentionally create a negative impression. Researchers conducted an experiment using a written scenario of an accountant performing an audit for a client. Respondents read the scenario, which manipulated self-handicapping (present or absent), performance outcome (success or failure), and causal attribution (internal or external) and then wrote short essays describing their reactions to the scenario. These essays were content analyzed for the respondent's impression of the accountant's actions.

Results suggested that the scenarios lead to differential responses according to condition, with certain conditions contributing to more negative impressions. In particular, both self-handicapping and causal attributions influenced observers' overall impressions of the accountant. Self-handicapping led to more positive impressions when it preceded performance failure, yet had no effect when preceding performance success. External causal attributions yielded more positive impressions than did internal causal attributions, irrespective of self-handicapping or performance outcomes. Thus, excuses following failures and modesty following successes were more effective techniques than apologies for failure and self-crediting for success. Additionally, results indicated that impressions held by respondents were at least partly determined by the number, type, and consistency of tactics employed by the accountant.

The findings suggest that the extent of a positive or negative impression varies according to the timing and causal attribution of various IM tactics. When the accountant suggested both before and after a performance that an external factor may delimit performance, a more favorable impression ensued. When the external factor noted during pre-performance self-handicapping was contradicted following performance by an internal causal attribution, a less favorable impression was formed. Implications of this research are similar to that of Giacalone and Riordan (1990), that the context in which performance information is presented to a supervisor can affect the way that performance is interpreted and evaluated.

17. Gordon, R. (1996). Impact of ingratiation on judgments and evaluations: A meta-analytic investigation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 71*(1), 54-70.

This article provided the results of a meta-analytic review of the empirical research on the relationship between various ingratiation tactics and the judgments and evaluations of targets and observers. The data revealed a small positive effect for ingratiation on performance evaluations and a significantly stronger positive effect for ingratiation on judgments of interpersonal attraction. However, these effects were qualified by a number of moderator variables, including

the specific ingratiation tactic used, the perceived transparency of the ingratiation, the direction of the influence attempt (upward, downward, or lateral), whether perceivers were targets of the influence attempt or simply observed the ingratiation, the gender of the perceiver, and the data collection setting. In particular, results indicated that a target of an ingratiation attempt is more likely to be positively affected by the ingratiation than a bystander who observes an ingratiation exchange. In terms of specific ingratiation tactics, other enhancement, opinion conformity, and the self-presentational tactics of apologies and modesty appear to have the most positive impact on judgments and evaluations. Downward and lateral influence attempts produced significantly more positive evaluations than did upward influence attempts, but for upward influence attempts, other enhancements produced the most positive effects. Stronger effects were observed when audio or written communications were used in comparison to face-to-face contact or audiovisual methods.

18. Bozeman, D., & Kacmar, K. (1997). A cybernetic model of impression management processes in organizations. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 69*(1), 9-30.

The authors proposed a process-oriented, cybernetic model of impression management (IM) in organizations, drawing on multiple disciplines of psychological research. In cybernetic systems, actors use a comparison process to detect discrepancies between environmental feedback and a reference goal, which motivates and directs subsequent action. The model suggests that IM motivation is a function of perceived discrepancies between feedback received from IM targets and a reference goal regarding one's desired social identity. If the process of comparison between feedback and the reference goal indicates no discrepancy, then actors will perceive their IM as successful and will maintain their current tactics. However, if a discrepancy is perceived, actors will search for alternative tactics to use. Overall, this model provides a practical framework integrating research in social identity theory, information processing, goal theory, feedback, and cybernetics, allowing for the testing of multiple concepts previously unconnected.

19. Appelbaum, S., & Hughes, B. (1998). Ingratiation as a political tactic: Effects within the organization. *Management Decision, 36*(2), 85-95.

The article provided a general overview of various organizational political tactics, and then focused more specifically on ingratiation. Four specific types of ingratiation were discussed: other enhancement, rendering favors, opinion conformity, and self-presentation. Individual causes of ingratiatory behavior included machiavellianism, locus of control, and work task uniqueness, while situational causes included the decision making style of the task unit, the ambiguity of a work task, and the scarcity of resources. The choice of ingratiation strategy was proposed to be based upon the cause of the ingratiation attempt, the perceived cost-benefit ratio, the perception of the target's susceptibility to ingratiation, and the analysis of whether or not situational variables encouraged an ingratiation attempt. Furthermore, a review of the impact of ingratiation on career success concluded that past research has provided mixed results. Overall this review concluded that ingratiation as a political tactic is in need of additional research to better understand its impacts.

20. Bolino, M. (1999). Citizenship and impression management: Good soldiers or good actors? *Academy of Management Review, 24*(1), 82-98.

In this article, a framework was provided to illustrate how impression management (IM) concerns may motivate citizenship behavior. The article also addressed the consequences of citizenship in the context of IM, as well as the interaction of IM motives with motives identified in previous research on citizenship. The authors made several propositions regarding the connections among these constructs. Specifically, they proposed that individuals may be more likely to engage in organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) when they believe that OCBs will be interpreted favorably and will be noticed by individuals who influence desired outcomes. Additionally, it was proposed that careerism and self-monitoring may be positively associated with OCBs. Furthermore, it was proposed that individuals may be more likely to engage in OCBs when they perceive higher levels of organizational politics, when performance appraisal deadlines are approaching, and when control over in-role performance is limited or difficult to distinguish. The author also proposed that the relationship between traditional motives (e.g., a genuine desire to help based on social exchange or an altruistic disposition) and citizenship behaviors may be moderated by IM motives; that is, the relationship may be weaker when IM motives are present. Finally, it was proposed that IM motives may moderate the relationship between OCB and organization/work group effectiveness, such that the relationship may be weaker when impression-management concerns are present. In sum, this conceptual article argues that IM is an important factor underlying OCB and that research on these behaviors should account for IM motives.

21. Palmer, R., Welker, R., Campbell, T., & Magner, N. (2001). Examining the impression management orientation of managers. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 16*(1), 35-49.

This article considered impression management (IM) from the perspective of two potential orientations that leaders may hold. A protective orientation exists when an individual is concerned primarily with encountering disapproval, rather than approval, from the relevant audience. An acquisitive orientation exists when an individual is concerned primarily with obtaining approval from the audience. This study tested the proposition that organizational managers have primarily an acquisitive orientation. The affective sentiments of 95 international middle- and upper-level business managers toward their organization, their leaders, and their business control mechanisms were compared with their perceptions of the acquisitiveness and protectiveness of their work environment. The results indicated that affective sentiments of managers are correlated with the acquisitiveness, but not the protectiveness, of the work environment. Furthermore, these results suggested that leaders may be more likely to hold an acquisitive IM orientation as opposed to a protective orientation.

22. Turnley, W. H., & Bolino, M. (2001). Achieving desired images while avoiding undesired images: Exploring the role of self-monitoring in impression management. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*(2), 351-360.

This research examined the role of self-monitoring in impression management (IM) behavior. Specifically, the authors hypothesized that high self-monitors would be more effective at IM in comparison to low self-monitors. Students in work groups indicated the extent to which they used five impression-management tactics: ingratiation, self-promotion, exemplification, supplication, and intimidation and provided their perceptions of the other members of their group. The relationship between IM and image favorability was then examined across 339 student-student dyads. The results suggested that high self-monitors can use impression-management tactics more effectively than can low self-monitors. In particular, high self-monitors appear to be more adept than low self-monitors at using ingratiation, self-promotion, and exemplification to achieve favorable images among their colleagues. Supplication resulted in negative perceptions for both high and low self-monitors. In regards to the use of intimidation, there was no relationship with the outcome variables for high self-monitors, while for low self-monitors, intimidation was related to both positive and negative outcomes. These results demonstrate that the tendency to adjust one's behavior to a situation is related to greater effectiveness in IM when using ingratiation, self-promotion, and exemplification tactics, but is not related to success with supplication or intimidation. This research demonstrates that self-monitoring is related to more effective IM in some cases, but not all.

23. Viswesvaran, C., Ones, D., & Hough, L. (2001). Do impression management scales in personality inventories predict managerial job performance ratings? *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 9*(4), 277-289.

This research investigated the relationship between impression management (IM) and job performance (both overall and by facet) in a job where interpersonal interactions are important (e.g., managers). A meta-analysis was conducted to determine the relationship between IM scale scores and overall managerial performance. Results indicated a correlation of $r = .04$. Two additional studies were also conducted to investigate the relationship between IM and specific facets of managerial performance. In Study 1, relationships between IM scores and supervisory ratings on 24 performance facets were investigated for 826 managers. In Study 2, relationships between IM and ratings on 22 dimensions of performance were examined in sample of 257 executives. Neither of these studies provided strong support for a relationship between IM scores and facets of job performance. These results provide evidence contradicting the notion that IM is, in some cases, a job-relevant skill, e.g., in a job requiring much interpersonal influence, such as management. However, the authors speculate that the standard ways in which researchers examine IM may be too narrow to detect a more job-relevant form of IM.

24. Sosik, J., Avolio, B., & Jung, D. (2002). Beneath the mask: Examining the relationship of self-presentation attributes and impression management to charismatic leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly, 13*(3), 217-242.

This study examined the relationship of self-presentation and impression management (IM) with charismatic leadership. Multisource field data were collected from an information technology consulting firm and linkages were examined among managers' desired charismatic identity, self-monitoring (SM), pro-social and self-serving IM, charismatic leadership, and measures of performance. Examples of pro-social IM include exemplification and ingratiation, whereas self-serving IM includes behaviors such as intimidation and self-promotion. Results indicated that complexity of desired charismatic identity (i.e., the salience of the charismatic image to the leader) was positively related to SM. Self-monitoring was negatively related to use of pro-social IM and positively related to self-serving IM. Pro-social IM related positively to charismatic leadership, which predicted managerial and unit performance. This research illustrates how self-image as a leader and SM disposition can influence the type of IM tactics used.

25. Bolino, M., & Turnley, W. H. (2003). More than one way to make an impression: Exploring profiles of impression management. *Journal of Management, 29*(2), 141-160.

This research examined profiles of impression management style and the way in which gender, self-monitoring, and personality relate to these profiles. Cluster analysis was used to examine how students working in teams tend to use various combinations of 5 IM tactics: ingratiation, self-promotion, exemplification, supplication, and intimidation. Results indicated three profiles of tactic use: Positives (focusing on positive tactics *only*, such as ingratiation, self-promotion, and exemplification), Aggressives (using *all* tactics evenly at *high* frequency), and Passives (using *all* tactics evenly at *low* frequency). Additionally, the research explored the relationship between different combinations of IM and how individuals are perceived by their peers. The results suggest that women are less aggressive than men in using IM, that high self-monitors favor positive IM strategies (ingratiation, self-promotion, and exemplification), and that individuals with high Machiavellian scores use IM tactics rather indiscriminately. The findings also suggest that individuals who either avoid using IM or who use only positive tactics are seen more favorably than those who use high levels of all types of IM. Overall, this research contributes to understanding of how and when various IM tactics are used, but others are not, suggesting a variety of factors that may predict an individual's likely IM profile.

26. McFarland, L., Ryan, A., & Kriska, S. (2003). Impression management use and effectiveness across assessment methods. *Journal of Management, 29*(5), 641-661.

The authors investigated the effectiveness of impression management (IM) in individual assessment methods. The authors predicted that the use and effectiveness of the IM techniques would differ between the situational interview and a role-play. In accordance with these expectations, the situational interview resulted in greater use of candidate IM tactics. Other-focused tactics, such as opinion conformity, were used significantly more frequently than self-

focused tactics, such as self-promotion, in both assessment methods. IM use in the situational interview predicted ratings and promotion scores, while IM use in the role-play did not. These findings support the notion that the use and effectiveness of IM techniques differs depending upon the context of the assessment situation.

27. Rozell, E., & Gundersen, D. (2003). The effects of leader impression management on group perceptions of cohesion, consensus, and communication. *Small Group Research, 34*(2), 197-222.

In this study, the authors examined the effects of leader impression management (IM) on group perceptions of cohesion, consensus, and communication. The study was conducted with a sample of 105 undergraduate business students. The findings indicated that the IM tactic of exemplification was predictive of group cohesion, feelings regarding group member relationships and decision processes, and feelings toward group decision outcomes. The IM tactic of ingratiation was also positively related to group cohesion. Helplessness was negatively related to feelings regarding group member relationships and decision processes. No IM tactics were predictive of feelings regarding individual effectiveness. This study provides evidence of other consequences of IM use than had traditionally been examined, such as perceptions of group functioning. This study presented interesting new evidence that these consequences arose more from IM than did altered perceptions of individual effectiveness.

28. Kacmar, K., Carlson, D., & Bratton, V. (2004). Situational and dispositional factors as antecedents of ingratiatory behaviors in organizational settings. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 65*(2), 309-331.

This study examined situational and dispositional antecedents of four ingratiatory behaviors. Two situational variables (role ambiguity and leader-member exchange quality) and four dispositional variables (self-esteem, need for power, job involvement, and shyness) were examined as antecedents to each of four ingratiatory behaviors: other-enhancing, opinion conformity, favor rendering, and self-promotion. Results suggested that each behavior had a unique set of antecedents and that the dispositional variables explained significant incremental variance. Antecedents of other-enhancing included: high leader-member exchange quality, low self-esteem, low need for power, and high job involvement. Antecedents of opinion conformity included low self esteem and high job involvement. Antecedents of favor rendering included low self-esteem, low need for power, and high job involvement. Finally, antecedents of self-promotion included high role ambiguity, high need for power, high job involvement, and high shyness. Overall, the findings supported the person-situation perspective that both situational and dispositional variables should be considered when examining antecedents of ingratiatory behaviors.

29. Lewis, M., & Neighbors, C. (2005). Self-determination and the use of self-presentation strategies. *The Journal of Social Psychology, 145*(4), 469-489.

This study evaluated the relationship between the individual difference variable of self-determination and the behavioral use of self-presentation. The authors hypothesized that less

self-determined individuals would report engaging in self-presentation strategies more frequently. Theory regarding self-determination describes three types of orientations: autonomy (tendency to base decisions on one's own values/interests and view events as a free choice among outcomes), controlled (tendency to base decisions on contingencies, pressures, and introjected regulations), and impersonal (tendency to abdicate decision making to external negative forces and expect poor outcomes). The authors use a scale to measure each orientation, based on how respondents choose from a set of potential responses to a scenario (e.g., going to a party). The authors expected higher autonomy scores to be associated with the use of fewer self-presentation strategies, whereas they expected higher controlled and impersonal orientation scores to be associated with the use of more self-presentation strategies. Results indicated that higher autonomy scores were related to the use of fewer self-presentation tactics. Being more controlled was associated with engaging in more self-presentation across the board. Higher impersonal scores were primarily associated with engaging in strategies to gain assistance or prevent high expectations. Overall, this research demonstrates that a motive to manage impressions may be a related to, or indicative of, one's sense of control over life.

30. Bolino, M., Varela, J., Bande, B., & Turnley, W. H. (2006). The impact of impression-management tactics on supervisor ratings of organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 27*(3), 281-297.

This research examined the relationship between impression management (IM) tactics on supervisory ratings of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs). Three types of IM were considered: *job-focused* (projecting an impression of task-related competence), *self-focused* (projecting an impression of non-task related traits, such as kindness or dedication), and *supervisor-focused* (ingratiatory behaviors, projecting an impression of likability or helpfulness). Findings from a sample of 122 supervisor-subordinate dyads indicated that supervisor-focused tactics were positively related to OCB ratings, while job-focused tactics were negatively related to OCB ratings. Self-focused tactics were not significantly related to OCB ratings. Additionally, citizenship behaviors were positively related to supervisor liking of the employee and overall ratings of job performance. Finally, the results suggested that OCB ratings mediated the relationship between supervisor-focused tactics of IM and supervisor evaluations of employee likeability. Overall, the findings presented were in line with previous research that indicated self-promotion can be a risky strategy, but ingratiatory behaviors are more consistently related to positive results.

31. Blass, F., & Ferris, G. (2007). Leader reputation: The role of mentoring, political skill, contextual learning, and adaptation. *Human Resource Management, 46*(1), 5-19.

The authors proposed a conceptual model for the development of leader reputation, focused specifically on a military context. The proposed model includes political skill, contextual learning, impression management (IM), and adaptation. Specifically, mentoring and contextual learning experiences were theorized as contributing to political skill, providing a leader with the social astuteness, behavioral flexibility, and adaptability necessary for making favorable impressions on others. Leader behaviors related to managing impressions and adaptation were

proposed to impact the leader's overall reputation. Overall, this article contributes to theoretical understanding of IM as an aspect of leadership and contributes ideas for research, particularly in a military context.

32. Gray, J., & Densten, I. (2007). How leaders woo followers in the romance of leadership. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 56*(4), 558-581.

In this study, the authors investigated the relationship between measures of self-deception and impression management (IM) and self-assessments of leadership. A survey of 2,376 business executives indicated that both self-deception and IM are positively related to self-assessments of two transformational leadership factors: individualized consideration and idealized influence. The authors suggest that the inflated scores in relation to self-deception indicate a tendency for leaders to bolster their self-image as a leader in a way that is consistent with romanticized leadership. The positive correlation of IM and individualized consideration and idealized influence are interpreted as the promotion of socially desirable images of an effective leader in terms of showing respect for others, being thoughtful and considerate, leading by example, and providing a good model. Overall, the results suggest that leaders tend to distort their self-images of leadership style to reflect romanticized ideals of leadership and that leaders transmit these images through IM behavior among followers.

33. Harris, K., Kacmar, K., Zivnuska, S., & Shaw, J. (2007). The impact of political skill on impression management effectiveness. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*(1), 278-285.

This study aimed to investigate the impact of political skill on the effectiveness of impression management (IM). Five IM tactics were considered: intimidation, exemplification, ingratiation, self-promotion, and supplication. Participants included 173 supervisor-subordinate dyads. Surveys were utilized to capture measures of IM and political skill. Results indicated that participants who combined political skills and high tactic use achieved more desirable supervisory performance ratings than those who used high levels of the tactics, but were low in political skill. Conversely, for those who used few IM tactics, ratings were higher for those low in political skill than those who were high in political skill. Specifically, individuals who were not politically skilled had better performance ratings when they did not use IM tactics than did their more politically skilled counterparts. From a practical standpoint, these results implied that from the employee perspective, individuals who want to make a good impression should be made aware of their level of political skill prior to implementing any IM tactics. Furthermore, from an organizational perspective, these results suggested that supervisors should be cautious in regards to evaluating individuals, as IM ability and political skill were found to influence perceptions.

34. **Treadway, D., Ferris, G., Duke, A., Adams, G., & Thatcher, J. (2007). The moderating role of subordinate political skill on supervisors' impressions of subordinate ingratiation and ratings of subordinate interpersonal facilitation.** *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*(3), 848-855.

This article investigated whether the relationship between supervisors' impressions of subordinate ingratiation and ratings of subordinate interpersonal facilitation is moderated by subordinate political skill. Specifically, supervisor reports of subordinate ingratiation were hypothesized to be negatively related to supervisor ratings of subordinate interpersonal facilitation. Results from a combined sample of retail service organizations provided evidence that when subordinates were perceived by their supervisors to engage in more frequent ingratiation behavior, the subordinates were rated lower on interpersonal facilitation. Also, subordinates with high political skill were less likely than those low in political skill to have their demonstrated ingratiation behavior perceived by targets as a manipulative influence attempt. These results highlighted the importance of political skill during the use of impression management techniques.

35. **Bolino, M., Kacmar, K., Turnley, W. H., & Gilstrap, J. (2008). A multi-level review of impression management motives and behaviors.** *Journal of Management, 34*(6), 1080-1109.

The authors provided a review of the research on impression management (IM) published since 1988. The article discussed the strengths, limitations, and future research directions in three key areas: research investigating the use of IM at the individual level of analysis; research that applies IM theory, concepts, and thinking to better understand organizational phenomena (e.g., seeking feedback); and research investigating organizational-level IM. Definitions of 31 IM behaviors were provided. At the individual level, antecedents of IM that were discussed included self-monitoring, affective commitment, perceived organizational support, machiavellianism, gender, self-esteem, need for power, job involvement, and leader-member exchange. Outcomes of IM are also reviewed including a variety of selection processes, supervisor liking, perceived similarity, performance ratings, procedural justice evaluations, and intrinsic and extrinsic career success. This article represents a state of the research review on IM, summarizing a wide array of research.

36. **Barrick, M., Shaffer, J., & DeGrassi, S. (2009). What you see may not be what you get: Relationships among self-presentation tactics and ratings of interview and job performance.** *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*(6), 1394-1411.

This article discussed the results of a meta-analytic investigation of the relationship between impression management (IM) tactics and interviewer ratings, whether the tactics related to job performance, and whether certain moderators affected these relationships. Results indicated that IM behaviors were positively related to interviewer ratings. Additionally, as interview structure increased, the effects of self-presentation tactics decreased. Finally, self-presentation tactics were more strongly related to interview ratings than to job performance;

however, use of these tactics was modestly correlated with job performance. Overall, this meta-analysis found that a person's self-presentation in the interview process may not always be correlated with performance on the job.

37. Grant, A., & Mayer, D. (2009). Good soldiers and good actors: Prosocial and impression management motives as interactive predictors of affiliative citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*(4), 900-912.

In this article, the authors proposed that impression management (IM) motives strengthen the association between prosocial motives and affiliative citizenship by encouraging employees to express citizenship in ways that both provides a benefit to their organizations and makes the individual employee look good. The authors reported two studies that examined the interactions of prosocial and IM motives as predictors of affiliative citizenship using multisource data from two different field samples. In the first study, results indicated that prosocial and IM motives were significant independent predictors of supervisor ratings of affiliative interpersonal citizenship behaviors. Additionally, the two motives interacted to predict interpersonal citizenship, such that IM motives strengthened the positive relationship between prosocial motives and citizenship. In the second study, the authors also considered citizenship directed toward the organization, in addition to citizenship directed toward other people. Results of the second study provided further support for the findings in study one. Findings also indicated that prosocial motives predict voice, or challenging citizenship behavior.

38. Rank, J., Nelson, N., Allen, T., & Xu, X. (2009). Leadership predictors of innovation and task performance: Subordinates' self-esteem and self-presentation as moderators. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 82*(3), 465-489.

In this study, the authors examined subordinates' self-esteem and self-presentation as moderators of the relationship between leadership behaviors and subordinates' innovation and task performance. The authors hypothesized that the relationships between leadership and both innovation and task performance would be moderated by subordinates' organization-based self-esteem and by their propensity to modify self-presentation. Findings from field survey data indicated that transformational leadership positively predicted both innovation and task performance, whereas active-corrective transactional leadership negatively predicted innovation. As hypothesized, transformational leadership related more strongly and positively to innovation for subordinates low in organizational-based self-esteem. When subordinates were low in self-presentational propensity, active-corrective transactional leadership was negatively associated with task performance, whereas transformational leadership was positively associated with task performance. This research demonstrates how self-presentation (a related concept to impression management) plays a moderating role in the impact of leadership on work outcomes.

Self-Monitoring

39. Garland, H., & Beard, J. F. (1979). Relationship between self-monitoring and leader emergence across two task situations. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 64*(1), 72-76.

This study focused on the effect of self-monitoring (SM) on leader emergence in same-sex groups. Each study presented three-person groups of undergraduates with a different task, one involving brainstorming ramifications of a hypothetical spike in average life span. The second task entailed groups cooperatively decrypting a list of anagrams ranging from 3 to 12 letters. In each task, experimenters observed and analyzed speech and participation patterns to evaluate leadership emergence. The authors hypothesized a positive relationship between SM and leader emergence in the highly interactive brainstorming task, but not the less socially-laden anagram task. As expected there was no effect of SM on leader emergence in the anagram task. Furthermore, SM was related to leader emergence in the female brainstorming groups (high self-monitors exhibited more leader emergence), however the effect was not present in the male groups. This research has implications for identifying leadership potential through leader emergence and how females and males may differ in this regard.

40. Zaccaro, S. J., Foti, R. J., & Kenny, D. A. (1991). Self-monitoring and trait-based variance in leadership: An investigation of leader flexibility across multiple group situations. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 76*(2), 308-315.

This research investigates the role of trait-like (i.e., relatively stable) characteristics in leader emergence across four different tasks. Each of the four tasks required leadership of a different style: initiating structure, consideration, persuasion, and production orientation. Participants completed the tasks as leaderless groups and rated each other on overall performance and performance related to the four styles required by the various tasks. A social relations model was used to tease apart variance in leadership ratings associated with rater, ratee, dyad, and group effects. Fifty-nine percent of the variance in leadership emergence was associated with ratee effects (i.e., leader trait-based variance), supporting the author's hypothesis that substantial variance would be trait-based. Furthermore, the authors' second hypothesis, that leadership rankings would be correlated with behaviors relevant to the type of leadership required by each task was supported in two of the four tasks. The final hypothesis was that, due to the apparent flexibility required to be an effective leader across tasks, self-monitoring would predict leader emergence. This effect was supported in two of the four tasks. Overall, the results partially support that individuals can emerge as leaders in tasks that require different types of leadership. This flexibility in leadership style is related to self-monitoring.

41. Kilduff, M., & Day, D. V. (1994). Do chameleons get ahead? The effects of self-monitoring on managerial careers. *Academy of Management Journal, 37*(4), 1047-1060.

This study examined the influence of personality on early career outcomes for graduates of a Masters in Business Administration program. The authors hypothesized that individuals high in self-monitoring were more likely to achieve promotions in managerial careers than low self-

monitors. They also suggested that high self-monitors were more likely to change employers and undertake major geographical moves linked to employment than low self-monitors. Results supported all hypotheses, such that high self-monitors were more likely to change employers, move locations, and achieve cross-company promotions. Furthermore, of the 72 individuals who did not change employers, high self-monitors were more likely to obtain internal promotions than low self-monitors. Thus, this study provided support for the idea that high self-monitoring in the workplace may have long term effects regarding employee outcomes.

42. Wright, C. L. (2000). *The impact of preparation on the ingratiation success of high and low self-monitors*. **(Doctoral Dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses. (AAT 3007177)**

This dissertation reports on two studies of a paradoxical finding that highly skilled task performers tend to face a performance decrement when they explicitly prepare for some physical and intellectual tasks. The author attributes this to the disruption of automatic processes that have developed through success for highly skilled individuals. In exploring whether this effect translates to a social task, the author used self-monitoring as a proxy for social skill and hypothesized that high self-monitors would face performance decrements in an ingratiation task after explicit preparation. Consistent with the paradoxical effect, the author expected low self-monitors to benefit from the explicit preparation. Results from Study 1 revealed no significant differences between unprepared and prepared high self-monitors. Overall, individuals in the preparation condition performed better, across self-monitoring levels. Study 2 results trended in the direction of the hypothesized effects, but the group differences were not statistically significant. Despite limited empirical support for hypotheses, this research presents an interesting new perspective on ingratiation as a task at which one may succeed or fail.

43. Day, D. V., Schleicher, D. J., Unckless, A. L., & Hiller, N. J. (2002). Self-monitoring personality at work: A meta-analytic investigation of construct validity. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(2), 390-401.

This study investigates the relevance of self-monitoring (SM) personality to workplace variables and also assesses the psychometric properties of SM scales. The authors gathered the population of research findings on SM (136 independent samples) and conducted a sample-weighted meta-analysis. Internal consistency reliability was acceptable for each of the three SM scales examined, although the Lennox and Wolfe (1984) scale performed better than either of Snyder's scale (Gangestad & Snyder, 1985; Snyder, 1974). SM was shown to be positively related to a number of organizational concerns, including job performance ratings, advancement, leader behavior and emergence, and several job attitudes. Combined with the evidence that high self-monitors are more often young and male, this may shed some light on the origin of gender disparities at top organizational levels.

44. Flynn, F.J., & Ames, D.R. (2006). What's good for the goose may not be as good for the gander: The benefits of self-monitoring for men and women in task groups and dyadic conflicts. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*(2), 272-281.

This study investigated the positive benefits for females who are high self-monitors and how these benefits contrast the effects for males and females who are low self-monitors. In Study 1, participants engaged in a mixed-gender group task. Results showed that high self-monitoring (SM) females were rated as more influential and valuable contributors than low SM females. Additionally, the positive effect of high SM was smaller for males than for females. Study 2 replicated the Study 1 results in an experimental context involving dyadic negotiations. Again, high SM females outperformed low SM females, yet high SM males did not benefit as much. Results suggested the high SM females altered their behavior during negotiations to match, for example, the assertiveness of the partner. Males and low SM females did not exhibit the same degree of behavior modification. Overall, this research suggests that females stand to gain more from high SM than males, in the context of gaining recognition in group tasks and succeeding in negotiations.

45. Leone, C. (2006). Self-monitoring: Individual differences in orientations to the social world. *Journal of Personality, 74*(3), 633-658.

This article served to introduce a special section of the *Journal of Personality* and provided a broad overview of how the construct of self-monitoring (SM) has evolved. Early in the conceptualization of SM, SM was defined as the "…extent to which individuals can and do monitor their self-presentation, expressive behavior, and non-verbal affective displays" (Leone, 2006, p. 634). As such, research in this area focused on things like using social cues for guiding behavior and engaging in impression management (IM). However, as time went on, the definition of SM expanded to include links to self-concepts and social relationships. Researchers began looking into how individuals differed in these two areas. The author concluded from this review that given the large nomological network surrounding the construct of SM, future work is needed to further clarify and address the breadth and depth of SM.

46. Moser, K. & Galais, N. (2007). Self-monitoring and job performance: The moderating role of tenure. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 15*(1), 83-93.

This research investigates a moderator of the effect of self-monitoring on job performance, specifically organizational tenure. The rationale for this moderation is that the performance of an employee with greater tenure will depend less on impressions that can be manipulated by high self-monitors and more on criteria related to actual performance. The authors obtained a sample of insurance sales agents and a performance criterion of number of new contracts sold. Results supported the moderating role of tenure, such that self-monitoring was positively related to job performance for incumbents with short tenure but not those with a longer tenure. This research suggests that higher self-monitors may have an advantage in creating good impressions early in their organizational tenure, but that advantage will fade over time.

47. Tate, B. (2008). A longitudinal study of the relationships among self-monitoring, authentic leadership, and perceptions of leadership. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 15*(1), 16-29.

This article presents a longitudinal examination of implicit leadership theories and how they relate to individual differences, such as self-monitoring (SM) and authentic leadership. Implicit leadership theory research focuses on idiosyncratic notions about what makes a good leader. Undergraduate students studying leadership participated in a semester-long group project. Self-rated measures of SM and authentic leadership were completed prior to group assignment and a peer-evaluation of leadership was completed by all group members in reference to each other three times during the semester. Analyses revealed variance among group members in their perceptions of an individual's leadership. This variance was unrelated to levels of SM, self-reported authentic leadership style, or measurement issues such as inter-rater reliability. Furthermore, over-inflated self-perceptions of leadership increased over time and at no point correlated with other group members' perceptions of their leadership. Significant contributions of this research are the findings that traits associated with leadership vary across individuals and the extent to which a person exhibits those traits varies over time. These variations in leadership behavior and implicit leadership theories have implications for self- and peer-rated leadership assessments.

Social Intelligence, Effectiveness, and Competence

    48. Freeman, L., Freeman, S., & Michaelson, A. (1988). On human social intelligence. *Journal of Social and Biological Structures, 11*(4), 415-425.

        This article built upon an ethological perspective, and in particular compared the study of primate social intelligence (SI) to that of human SI. The authors defined SI as a broad skill set including: intention, perception, attribution, and memory (retention and organization). Patterns of affiliation within a community were recognized as a critical component in relation to social intelligence. The authors conducted a qualitative examination of a group of windsurfers who had a set of affiliation patterns based on their group membership. The results revealed that the affiliations in the group observed by outsiders studying it and insiders participating in it were virtually identical. Thus, the authors concluded that human beings are extremely good at processing information about in-groups and out-groups, affiliations and splits, in their social domains. It was suggested that this is due to innate cognitive mechanisms in the human species. This reinforces the need for organizational leaders to consider how awareness of social dynamics and group status might influence individuals' behavior in the organization.

    49. Yamagishi, T., Kikuchi, M, & Kosugi, M. (1999). Trust, gullibility, and social intelligence. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology, 2*(1), 145-161.

        The purpose of this research was to examine the relationship between trust and social intelligence. Experiments conducted in Japan began with a self-report general trust scale to identify "high trusters" (i.e., those who tend to trust others as a default mode) and "low trusters" (i.e., those who more often assume others are cheating them). The experiment involved the participants predicting the choices of individuals playing the Prisoner's Dilemma, a common game-theory scenario which tests trust levels between two people. Results indicated that the high trusters were more accurate in predicting the choices made in the Prisoner's Dilemma scenarios, suggesting they have more highly developed social intelligence regarding who is trustworthy. The authors explain these results by arguing that individuals who have developed social intelligence are able to afford to hold high levels of general trust, thanks to a refined ability to detect untrustworthiness if it presents itself. Without this form of intelligence, one is more likely to take on more distrust as a precaution. The authors thus argue against the notion that general trust indicates gullibility. The authors defined gullibility as being insensitive to information that suggests untrustworthiness, which is distinct from being a socially intelligent person who trusts in their own ability to detect dishonesty in others. Implications include a refined concept of the origin of trust and the role of social intelligence. The authors recommend future research on cultural differences in the relation of social intelligence to trust.

    50. Kihlstrom, J., & Cantor, N. (2000). Social intelligence. In Sternberg, R. J. (Ed). *Handbook of intelligence* (2nd ed., pp. 359-379). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

        This chapter reviews social intelligence (SI) research over several decades, beginning with the work of Thorndike in 1920, to the psychometric view (including the George

Washington Social Intelligence Test), and the role of SI in relation to other forms of intelligence. The authors' review begins with a controversy in the 1930s over whether SI should be correlated with personality, specifically, the trait of extraversion. In the history of SI testing, a number of tests eliminated the use of verbal material, so as not to confound cognitive/linguistic intelligence and SI. Keating was an exception, reputedly contaminating his findings with abstract and verbal reasoning abilities, reducing the validity of his measure. Ford and Tisak attempted to remedy the problem with a 360° testing approach. The authors concluded that verbal abilities related to standard IQ should likely correlate highly with the verbal side of SI, but not the nonverbal. However, this may be context dependent.

The authors further address the debate regarding whether SI is a personality construct on which individuals can be ranked or if, as the authors propose, that social intelligence is a function of applying social knowledge through cognitive processes, and thus the concern should not be *how much* social intelligence one has, but *what* social intelligence one has. Additionally, the authors highlight the idea that some SI procedures are conscious and planned, while some are unconscious and automatic. The authors note Greenspan's (1979) model of SI, consisting of social sensitivity, social insight, and social communication. Finally, the authors briefly note Baron-Cohen's idea that people on the autistic spectrum lack theory of mind, and thus lack social intelligence. The value of this article lies in understanding the historical context of current research and theory. The article also identifies theoretical and empirical questions that remain unanswered or that are likely to arise from modern conceptualizations of social intelligence.

51. Kobe, L., Reiter-Palmon, R., & Rickers, J. (2001). Self-reported leadership experiences in relation to inventoried social and emotional intelligence. *Current Psychology: Developmental, Learning, Personality, 20*(2), 154-163.

This study investigates the differences between social intelligence (SI) and emotional intelligence (EI), given that many have argued that the constructs overlap. The authors focus on whether and how the two forms of intelligence play a role in leadership abilities. The authors review both EI and SI theories, and note that both have been suggested to be related to leadership behaviors and social effectiveness. Based on this review, the authors sought to determine if EI was a component or type of SI. SI was measured using 30 validated items in which respondents report their experiences and behaviors in certain social situations. EI was measured using Bar-On's (1996) EQ-i scale. Results showed that leadership, SI, and EI were all positively correlated. Social intelligence accounted for an additional 17% of the variance in leadership experiences after controlling for EI. Together, SI and EI accounted for 29% of the variance in leadership experiences. EI did not add any unique variance in addition to SI. In sum, the authors conclude that SI is a primary component of leadership and leader effectiveness, with EI being a component of SI.

52. Trabun, M. (2002). *The relationship between emotional intelligence and leader performance***. (Master's Thesis). Retrieved from http://www.dtic.mil/get-tr-doc/pdf?AD=ADA403540.**

This master's thesis investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence (EI) and the leadership performance of 104 male and female U.S. Naval Academy midshipmen.

Emotional intelligence was defined as a combination of several facet abilities, including the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth. The purpose of the research was to determine if the statistical prediction of leader effectiveness could be improved with measures of emotional intelligence. Self-report survey data were collected on the Mayer Salovey, Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test Version 2 (MSCEIT v.2) emotional intelligence and compared to participants' Naval performance evaluations. Results indicated that the MSCEIT did not strongly predict leader effectiveness. However, when added to a model of predictors, a small improvement in the statistical model's fit did occur. Implications of this study are that emotional intelligence plays a minor role among many other factors in predicting the performance of a Navy midshipman. Policy recommendations include the need for developing emotional intelligence training and improving the consistency of performance evaluation throughout the Navy. Research recommendations include longitudinal studies of change in emotional intelligence with age and experience and further development and assessment of alternative measurements of emotional intelligence.

53. Zaccaro, G., Gilbert, J., Thor, K., & Mumford, M. (1991). Leadership and social intelligence: Linking social perceptiveness and behavioral flexibility to leader effectiveness. *The Leadership Quarterly, 2*(4), 317-342.

This paper summarized social intelligence literature in relation to leadership, and presented several propositions regarding the differences between leaders and non-leaders in terms of their social knowledge structures. The article presented an open systems organizational leadership view, wherein a good leader solves organizational problems and facilitates organizational goal achievement. In this review, the authors proposed that successful leaders have strong abilities in two areas of social intelligence (SI), namely social perceptiveness and behavioral flexibility. According to the authors, leadership occurs within a social context, and therefore leaders need to be able to perceive accurately the "social requirements" of the context in order to vary their responses accordingly. Social perceptiveness is therefore defined as the ability to acquire and interpret social information; to become aware of personnel dynamics that may constrain or impede action paths or problem solution paths; and to acquire and act on social information that helps the organization grow in appropriate ways. The authors further defined behavioral flexibility as the requirement of leaders to have social knowledge that encourages situational variability in responses. These two qualities – social perceptiveness and behavioral flexibility – may reflect both trait and situational aspects of leadership. The resulting implications of the theoretical propositions presented in this review include the idea that leaders should be viewed as experts in the operation of complex social systems, and that social intelligence should be considered as a key component of leader attributes, alongside more traditional notions of intelligence.

54. Baron, R. A., & Markman, G. D. (2003). Beyond social capital: The role of entrepreneurs' social competence in their financial success. *Journal of Business Venturing, 18*(1), 41-60.

Two studies address the hypothesis that levels of entrepreneur's social competence are positively linked to financial success. Authors developed self-report measures of five social competence dimensions: social perception (accuracy in perceiving others), impression management (inducing positive reactions in others), persuasiveness (ability to change others' views in face to face interactions), social adaptability (comfort in and adaptability to a wide range of social contexts), and expressiveness (clearly communicating emotions and feelings). The authors also measured emotional intelligence, conceptualized as emotional self-regulation, emotional influence over others, self-motivation, and maintaining long-term social relationships. Participants from the cosmetics industry (all female) and the high-tech industry (predominately male) were surveyed to test this proposition. Results indicated that the social perception dimension was positively related to financial success for both groups. Social adaptability was related to financial success in the cosmetics group, while expressiveness was related to success in the high-tech group. Measures were cross-validated with a third group, providing evidence for the social competence measure's validity. The authors propose (without directly testing) that the relationship between the social competence dimensions and financial success operates through an accumulation of social capital, which provides access to important business associates and creates financial benefit from the quality of these relationships.

55. Bar-On, R., Tranel, D., Denburg, N., & Bechara, A. (2003). Exploring the neurological substrate of emotional and social intelligence. *Brain, 126*(8), 1790-1800.

In the debate over whether emotional intelligence (EI) is a subset of social intelligence (SI) or vice versa, Bar-On proposed in this theoretical paper that EI was the broader construct, subsuming SI. The authors argued that both forms of intelligence are neurologically distinct from that of cognitive intelligence – different functions, different regions of the brain (EI and SI are more limbic), etc. The authors broke EI down into five component parts: (1) being aware of and able to express one's own emotions, (2) being aware of others' emotions and using that awareness to create interpersonal relationships; (3) emotion management and regulation; (4) ability to cope with situations and solve personal and interpersonal problems; (5) ability to generate positive affect in other people in order to be self-motivated to achieve goals. The authors concluded the paper by arguing that EI is very closely related to SI, but is indeed the broader construct from a neurological standpoint. This conclusion is contrary to that of Kobe, Reiter-Palmon, Rickers (2001), which concluded that SI is the broader construct subsuming EI.

56. Riggio, R. E., Riggio, H. R., Salinas, C., & Cole, E. J. (2003). The role of social and emotional communication skills in leader emergence and effectiveness. *Group Dynamics, Theory, Research, and Practice, 7*(2), 83-103.

In this article, three studies investigated the role social skills played in leader emergence and effectiveness. In Study 1, 218 undergraduates completed self-report measures and then worked in small groups on a problem-solving task, electing leaders at the task midpoint. The

Social Skills Inventory (SSI) was used to measure six basic communication skills: emotional expressivity, emotional sensitivity, emotional control, social expressivity, social sensitivity, and social control. Group sessions were videotaped and coded for: amount of speaking, directive statements, questions asked, feedback statements, and task-irrelevant statements. Results indicated that groups elected leaders who spoke most and were extraverted, but not more socially skilled. Thus, quantity, not quality, of communication was the best predictor of who would emerge as leader. Furthermore, participants who were male were more likely to emerge as leaders.

In Study 2, a similar approach was taken but leaders were pre-selected on the basis of their SSI scores (high, medium or low), and led small groups in two different tasks. Results showed that highly socially skilled individuals were viewed as effective leaders, but they did not lead more productive groups, regardless of the type of task. Finally, in the interest of determining generalizability, Study 3 surveyed 76 fire service leaders and found that social skills were related to satisfaction with the leader. Social skills were also related to objective measures of performance, but for only the higher level leaders. Overall, these three studies illustrated that while social skills play a role in the perceptions of leadership effectiveness, the relationship between social skills and group performance is less clear. Future investigation is needed to better understand the conditions under which leader social skills contribute to effective group outcomes.

57. Schneider, R. J., & Johnson, J. W. (2005). *Direct and indirect predictors of social competence in United States Army junior commissioned officers* **(ARI Technical Report 1171). Arlington, VA: U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences.**

The purpose of this research was to study the linkages between social intelligence, social knowledge, and social performance among Army officers. Specifically, the authors tested the mediation of the social intelligence-social performance relationship by social knowledge. A model of social performance was developed with seven superordinate dimensions (teamwork, coworker relations, supervision, oral communication, networking/customer relations, interpersonal influence, and interpersonal/organizational understanding) and 20 subordinate dimensions. The authors use this model to develop a video-based Social Knowledge Test (SKT) and multi-source, behavioral rating scale, the Social Performance Inventory (SPI). Six existing scales were used to measure social intelligence.

The mediation hypothesis was supported for three dimensions of social performance: effective supervision, social presence, and interpersonal sensitivity. Other results indicated that social intelligence, personality traits, social knowledge, and general cognitive ability all positively predicted social performance in the military officer sample. The video-based social knowledge measure showed substantial criterion-related validities with the same three social performance dimensions, and represents a viable means of measuring social knowledge and predicting social performance. The implications of this research are the development of new conceptual models for understanding the links between social intelligence, knowledge, and performance, new measures for use in conducting future research, and evidence regarding which elements of military officer social performance are most predicted by social knowledge and intelligence.

58. Barbuto, J. E. & Burbach, M. E. (2006). The emotional intelligence of transformational leaders: A field study of elected officials. *The Journal of Social Psychology, 146*(1), 51-64.

The purpose of this research was to investigate the degree to which leaders possessing emotional intelligence would also be viewed as exhibiting transformational leadership behaviors. The study was a survey design, in which 80 elected public officials in the United States provided self-report data regarding their emotional intelligence and transformational leadership. Transformational leadership of each leader was also rated by 4-6 of their direct reports. Together they composed 388 leader–member dyads. The results illustrated that the emotional intelligence of the leaders was significantly and positively correlated with self-perceptions and rater-perceptions of transformational leadership. Based on these findings, the researchers encourage future research examining emotional intelligence as an antecedent to effective leadership behaviors.

59. Keating, C. (2006). Why and how the silent self speaks volumes: Functional approaches to nonverbal impression management. In V. Manusov & M. Patterson (Eds.) *The Sage Handbook of Nonverbal Communication* **(pp. 321-340). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.**

The purpose of this chapter was to highlight different approaches to nonverbal impression management (IM). The author leveraged nonverbal behavior (NVB) theory as a means for understanding nonverbal IM. Specifically, the author proposed that while traditionally IM has been focused on what is said, it is equally critical to focus on the nonverbal behaviors that surround IM. Accordingly, emotional self-regulation was suggested as most often manifesting nonverbally, and sometimes efforts to control the verbal side of behavior lead to what is known as nonverbal "leakage" of emotions and other things. The author further suggested that poor emotional regulation can negatively impact the self as well as others, especially in situations of influence, such as Army leadership. Based on his review of the literature, the author reiterated that nonverbal IM can also be unconscious. Overall, this chapter provides a critical summary of the literature and argues that nonverbal behaviors require additional attention in future research.

60. Semadar, A., Robins, G., & Ferris, G. R. (2006). Comparing the validity of multiple social effectiveness constructs in the prediction of managerial job performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 27*(4), 443-461.

This study examines the relative criterion validity of a set of social effectiveness constructs related to predicting managerial job performance. The study examined self-monitoring (Snyder & Gangestad, 1985), leadership self-efficacy (Paglis & Green, 2002), emotional intelligence (Palmer & Stough, 2001), and political skill (Ferris et al., 2005). With a large sample of junior to senior managers from an automotive manufacturing firm, the authors obtained annual performance ratings from several months prior based on a forced distribution rating format. The resulting correlations revealed that performance was predicted by three of the social effectiveness constructs, excluding self-monitoring. Controlling for gender and seniority, multiple regression results indicated political skill as the strongest predictor of performance, with

significant incremental prediction over the other three constructs. The take-away from this study is the empirical link made between multiple social effectiveness measure and managerial job performance.

61. Semadar, A., Robins, G., & Ferris, G. R. (2006). Comparing the validity of multiple social effectiveness constructs in the prediction of managerial job performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 27*(4)*, 443-461.*

Social effectiveness constructs have received increased attention in organizational research. However, the proliferation of such constructs has raised questions of their relative effectiveness as predictors of job performance when used in multivariate comparison. The current study examined four social effectiveness constructs (i.e., self-monitoring, leadership self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and political skill) in the prediction of managerial job performance. Data were collected from 136 managers of a large Australian-based motor manufacturing company. Participants completed surveys containing measures of social effectiveness constructs. Objective measures of job performance were also collected from the participants' organization. Regression analyses indicated that performance was predicted by all social effectiveness constructs with the exception of self-monitoring. Multiple regression analyses, controlling for gender and seniority effects, found political skill to be the strongest predictor of performance. Moreover, it had significant incremental validity in the prediction of performance over the prediction provided by the other three social effectiveness constructs as a set. These results provided support for political skill as a critical factor for predicting job performance, even beyond other forms of social effectiveness.

62. Abbe, A., Gulick, L., & Herman, J. (2007). *Cross-cultural competence in Army leaders: A conceptual and empirical foundation.* **(ARI Study Report 2008-01). Arlington, VA: U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences.**

This report focused on identifying the characteristics of cross-cultural competence in Army leaders. Based on an extensive literature review of relevant social and cross-cultural skill constructs, the authors identified a framework for cross-cultural competence in Army leaders. Furthermore, the predictors of intercultural effectiveness were reviewed as were existing measures of cross-cultural competence and related constructs. The report provided support for the idea that cross-cultural competence is a necessary culture-general construct which can contribute to intercultural effectiveness across a range of cultural contexts. Cross-cultural competence was defined as the set of knowledge, skills, and affect that develop in order to be able to respond to a range of cultural contexts. Furthermore, a review of empirical literature revealed that culture-general competencies contributed more to intercultural effectiveness than culture-specific skills such as language proficiency and culture specific knowledge. Additionally, this review reveals that traits, including extraversion, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and self-monitoring, influence performance and adjustment in different cultural contexts.

63. Emilsson, U. M., & Lilje, B. (2008). Training social competence in engineering education: Necessary, possible, or not even desirable? An explorative study from a surveying education programs. *European Journal of Engineering Education, 33*(3), 259-269.

       The purpose of this paper was to explore whether social competence is a necessary trait for engineers to contribute to sustainable development. Furthermore, if social competence is necessary, clarification is needed in terms of how to teach communication, group-processes, and leadership to promote social competence in technical environments like engineering education programs. The article presented the qualitative results of a pedagogical project carried out in the education of land surveyors in Sweden, aimed to develop and test a pedagogical model for teaching engineering students' social competence. The findings suggested that the use of theories from social sciences and group-oriented teaching contributed to the teaching of social competence skills. Furthermore, it was found that when social competence was successfully incorporated in the engineering education, it was imperative to start with the teachers' roles. Specifically training the teachers to demonstrate the social dimensions in professional situations was particularly critical to success. The authors further suggested that, based on these results, having engineers demonstrate socially competent behaviors to students may also be beneficial. Overall, the results of this qualitative work promote the concept of demonstration as a key component to successful social competence training.

64. Goleman, D., & Boyatzis, R. (2008). Social intelligence and the biology of leadership. *Harvard Business Review, 86*(9), 74-81.

       This article examines the biological foundations for a relationship-based approach to leadership. The authors argue that more effective leaders are likely to have greater social intelligence. The authors describe social intelligence as the ability to detect the emotions of others and to align the functioning of one's own emotional neural activity in response. Furthermore, this alignment is used to influence the other's emotional state, creating a system of mutually dependent neural processes of emotion. The authors argue that this kind of reciprocal system, with influence flowing from leader to follower and vice-versa, can result in a greater ability of a socially intelligent leader to, for example, elicit laughter from their subordinates or influence their level of affective commitment. This article contributes to an informed discussion among leadership and management scholars about the insights provided by neuroscience to the understanding of socially intelligent leadership.

65. Sewell, G. (2009). Emotional intelligence and the Army leadership requirements model. *Military Review, 89*(6), 93-98.

       In this paper, COL Sewell utilized Army Field Manual (FM) 6-22 to define Army leadership as an influence process, and argued that all Army leaders can benefit from better emotional intelligence (EI), as it can aid in this influence process. The author viewed both Goleman's and Bar-On's models as being consistent with military doctrine. Referring to FM 6-22, he cited the following as emotional factors in leadership: balance, stability, self-control, and interpersonal tact, interpersonal adaptability, and interpersonal judgment. However, several

abilities were also added to better address the necessary skills of emotional intelligence relevant to Army leaders. These abilities included being: adaptive, flexible, self-aware, and agile. Furthermore, the author addressed a weakness in FM 6-22, in that it did not acknowledge how important these attributes are or how to develop them in leaders. In diagrams, core leadership competencies and traits were extracted from FM 6-22 and the Goleman (2006) EI model. These diagrams highlighted the significant overlap in these constructs. This article details how social and emotional intelligence constructs align with what Army doctrine requires from Army leaders.

66. Cherniss, C., Grimm, L. G., & Liautaud, J. P. (2010). Process-designed training: A new approach for helping leaders develop emotional and social competence. *Journal of Management Development, 29*(5), 413-431.

The purpose of this paper was to evaluate the effectiveness of a leadership development program based on International Organization for Standardization (ISO) principles. The program utilized process-designed training (PdT) groups to help participants develop emotional and social competence. PdT is a combination of humanistic psychology and behavioral models of change. The technique focuses on teaching concrete behaviors presented as "rules" or "processes" monitored at first by a trained moderator. The study involved 162 managers from nine different companies in a random assignment control group design. There were nine different groups with nine managers in each group. The outcome measure was the Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI), a multi-rater measure of social and emotional competencies associated with effective leadership. Outcome data were collected before the start of the program, one year into the program, and two years into the program. Results indicated that the intervention group had improved more over two years than the control groups on all ECI variables. Although ISO principles are utilized widely in business, this was the first study that has used this approach in the design and delivery of management development training. This research provides a model for developing social skill training according to an international training standard.

Political Skill

67. Ahearn, K. K., Ferris, G. R., Hochwater, W. A., Douglas, C., & Ammeter, A. P. (2004). Leader political skill and team performance. *Journal of Management, 30*(3), 309-327.

The study presented in this article investigated the impact of the political skill of leaders on team performance. Specifically, the purpose of this study was to determine the role of leader political skill in the performance of casework teams in a large state child welfare system. Team performance was operationalized as "permanency rate," or the successful placement of children into legally final living arrangements (i.e., adoption, successor guardianship, or return to natural parents). After controlling for several contextual factors – including average caseload, average age of children served, average number of team placements, team member experience, leader experience, and team empowerment – leader political skill was found to significantly predict team performance scores. This study provided a unique perspective in that it addressed the influence of leader social effectiveness in the context of non-profit organizations. Furthermore, the results of this study suggest that politically skilled leaders can inspire team members to perform better.

68. Douglas, C., & Ammeter, A. P. (2004). An examination of leader political skill and its effect on ratings of leader effectiveness. *The Leadership Quarterly, 15*(4)*,* 537-550.

This research explored the multidimensionality of political skill and its multilevel effects on leader effectiveness ratings using administrative personnel from a public school district. Political skill has been proposed to be a construct comprised of four dimensions: network building/social capital, interpersonal influence/control, self and social astuteness, and genuineness/sincerity. Per previous research, it was expected that these four dimensions would be distinct but related. Additionally, the authors hypothesize that perceptions of leader skill will vary more by individual, than at the group level, because leaders are likely to use their political skill at the individual level, rather than the same with all members of a group. Based on a survey of school administrators, supervisors, and staff, results revealed a two-dimensional framework for subordinates' perceptions of leader political skill: network building/social capital and interpersonal influence/control. Furthermore, it appeared that political skill existed primarily as a within-group phenomenon as expected, supporting the notion that political leadership behaviors are individualized with each follower. Finally, perceptions of leader political skill significantly predicted leader effectiveness ratings above and beyond leader demographics and social skill. These findings are important as they suggest leader political skills impact leader effectiveness, providing an avenue for future research.

69. Kolodinsky, R. W., Hochwarter, W. A., & Ferris, G. R. (2004). Nonlinearity in the relationship between political skill and work outcomes: Convergent evidence from three studies. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 65*(2), 294-308.

This article examined the form and magnitude of the relationship between political skill and two intrapersonal worker reactions—job satisfaction and job tension. Political skill was hypothesized to demonstrate an inverted U-shaped nonlinear relationship with job satisfaction and a U-shaped relationship with job tension. Data from three separate studies supported the hypothesized relationships. Specifically, moderate levels of political skill were associated with higher levels of job satisfaction (Studies 1–3) and lower levels of job tension (Studies 1 and 2). Conversely, in comparison to more moderate levels, higher and lower levels of political skill were found to be adversely related to these outcomes. Thus, this series of studies provided support for the idea that intrapersonal political skill dynamics may operate differently from interpersonal dynamics.

70. Perrewe, P. L., & Nelson, D. L. (2004). Gender and career success: The facilitative role of political skill. *Organizational Dynamics, 33*(4), 366-378.

In this theoretical article, the authors discussed the unique barriers to advancement that women often face in the workplace, and the benefit female managers could gain by honing their political skill. In particular, the authors proposed that women must combine political skill with influence tactics such as assertiveness, ingratiation, and self-promotion. Without incorporating political skill into these influence tactics, women will not be successful in conveying influence and may even damage their reputation. Political skill in itself is argued not to be an influence tactic but instead is a skill that makes influence more effective. Additionally, the authors proposed that political skill can increase managerial effectiveness and reduce feelings of stress. Finally, the authors discussed the need for effective mentoring and executive coaching as ways to facilitate effective political skill. The implications of this work are that, given the potential benefits in the workplace, political skill is a critical factor that all leaders, especially women, should work to refine and develop.

71. Perrewe, P. L., Zellars, K. L., Ferris, G. R., Rossi, A. M., Kacmar, C. J., & Ralston, D. A. (2004). Neutralizing job stressors: Political skill as an antidote to the dysfunctional consequences of role conflict. *Academy of Management Journal, 47*(1), 141-152.

Given the potentially detrimental effects of stress in organizations, it is important to understand factors that may help to reduce stress. In this study the authors examined the neutralizing effects of political skill on relationships between perceived role conflict and strain. Specifically, the authors hypothesized that the relationship between perceived role conflict and strain would be moderated by political skill such that higher political skill should attenuate the relationship between role conflict and psychological, somatic, and physiological strain. Strain was measured as psychological anxiety, somatic complaints, and physiological strain (heart rate and systolic and diastolic blood pressure). In a survey study of 230 full-time employees, results supported the moderating effects of political skill, in that greater political skill reduced the

negative effects of role conflict on all types of strain. The implications of this research are that the benefits of political skill may include more than better positioning within an organization's structure, to include resilience to role conflict.

72. Treadway, D. C., Hochwarter, W. A., Ferris, G. R., Kacmar, C. J., Douglas, C., Ammeter, A. P., & Buckley, M. R. (2004). Leader political skill and employee reactions. *The Leadership Quarterly*, **15(4), 493-513.**

Political skill has been deemed an important component of leaders in terms of predicting their success in organizations. However, empirical research to test relations between political skill and its impact on employee reactions is limited. The purpose of the present research was therefore to examine this issue from an empirical perspective. A causal model was proposed and tested that investigated the link between leader political skill and employee reactions. Specifically, it was proposed that leader political skill would positively influence subordinate perceptions of organizational support. In turn, the model proposed that subordinate perceived organizational support would influence subordinate trust, organizational cynicism, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. These relationships were tested in a survey of 210 full time employees from a range of organizations. All proposed relationships in the model were supported, providing initial evidence regarding the influence that leader political skill can have on leader-subordinate relations.

73. Treadway, D. C., Hochwarter, W. A., Kacmar, C. J., & Ferris, G. R. (2005). Political will, political skill, and political behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, **26(3), 229-245.**

The current study drew upon Mintzberg's (1983) conceptualization of political will and political skill to evaluate the predictors and consequences of political behavior at work. As critical elements of political will, need for achievement and intrinsic motivation were hypothesized to predict the use of political behavior at work. Furthermore, the authors proposed that political skill would moderate the relationship between political behavior and emotional labor. Data was gathered from employees (N = 193) that represented a wide array of organizations. Results illustrated that the proposed relationships were indeed supported. Specifically, need for achievement and intrinsic motivation were positively associated with political behavior. In turn, those opting to employ political behavior at work experienced a higher degree of emotional labor, but this relationship was found to operate differently at low and high levels of political skill. In particular, those with low political skill who used political behavior experienced emotional labor, but those high in political skill did not report the same emotional labor reactions. This research demonstrates why political behavior may not be as effective or sustainable for everyone, depending on their level of natural political skill.

74. Blass, F., & Ferris, G. R. (2007). Leader reputation: The role of mentoring, political skill, contextual learning, and adaptation. *Human Resource Management, 46*(1), 5-19.

According to the authors, political skill is critical for military leader effectiveness and leader reputation. Political skill in particular plays a key role in the development of a positive leader reputation. This article presented a conceptual model that distinguished how political skill, contextual learning, impression management, and adaptation interact to explain leader reputation development for military personnel. In particular, this model proposed that political skill is shaped by mentoring and contextual learning experiences, which, in turn, affect the flexibility needed for making favorable impressions on others, adaptation, and fit. All of these factors, in turn, influenced the development of a leader's reputation. The implications of this model center around the need for effective mentoring in military environments, as successful mentoring relationships should help leaders develop the necessary political skills they need to be effective.

75. Breland, J. W., Treadway, D. C., Duke, A. B., & Adams, G. L. (2007). The interactive effect of leader-member exchange and political skill on subjective career success. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies, 13*(3), 1-14.

Although research examining leader-member exchange (LMX) has established a relationship between LMX and objective performance measures, little research has explored LMX and subjective measures of career success (i.e., self-ratings of one's career success in general terms). Furthermore, the political nature of the workplace has led to suggestions of political skill being a contributing factor to subjective career success as well. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine this issue, specifically by investigating the relationships among LMX, political skill, and subjective career success. The authors proposed that political skill would moderate the relationship between leader-member exchange and subjective career success, with individuals involved in a low quality LMX relationship having higher levels of subjective career success if they were highly politically skilled. A survey was administered to 295 retail workers, and results supported the proposed hypothesis. This research provides a unique perspective in that it examines a situational variable (LMX) and an individual difference variable (political skill) in relation to the prediction of career success, aiding in understanding the interactive nature of both the situation and individual variables that may affect career performance.

76. Ferris, G. R., Treadway, D. C., Perrewe, P. L., Brouer, R. L., Douglas, C., & Lux, S. (2007). Political skill in organizations. *Journal of Management, 33*(3), 290-320.

Political skill was introduced more than two decades ago in organizational science as a necessary skill that aids in effective performance in organizations. However, while research has consistently called for additional investigation in this area, research has laid dormant until very recently. The purpose of this article was to provide a state of the science review of political skill, defining and describing the construct and embedding it in a cognition–affect–behavior, multilevel, meta-theoretical framework that proposes how political skill operates to exercise effects on both self and others in organizations. Specifically, the authors first outlined the

dispositional and personal ability antecedents of political skill, including perceptiveness, control, affability, active influence, and developmental experiences. Each of these sets of antecedents was viewed as differentially influencing the four basic components of political skill. Next, a meta-theoretical framework of political skill was presented. This framework identified political skill effects on the self as being intra-psychic processes such as personal resource development and personal goals. These intra-psychic processes were in turn proposed to influence interpersonal processes such as influence tactics and strategies, and group level processes, such as the establishment of a vision. The article concludes with a summary of future research needs, including the need to continue to validate and utilize the Political Skill Inventory (PSI), as well as further research to delineate the differences between political skill and other social effectiveness variables. This work contributes important theoretical grounding to research on political skill and contributes avenues for research.

77. **Liu, Y., Ferris, G. R., Zinko, R., Perrewe, P. L., Weitz, B., & Xu, J. (2007). Dispositional antecedents and outcomes of political skill in organizations: A four-study investigation with convergence.** *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 71*(1), 146-165.

In this article, the authors developed a four-study research plan to examine the dispositional antecedents of political skill (e.g., affability and active influence), and its job performance consequences, and also to incorporate the mediating role of reputation. Study 1 established the psychometric properties of the two reputation scales used in the present research, and also demonstrated the validity of the self-report reputation measure in Study 4. Study 2 results indicated that the affability disposition predicted political skill. Also, political skill predicted job performance. In Study 3, the political skill–job performance linkage was replicated and results indicated that reputation fully mediated the relationship between political skill and job performance. Study 4 investigated all the linkages examined in Studies 2 and 3, and found that the "Active Influence" dispositional theme predicted political skill, and that the political skill–job performance relationship was again fully mediated by reputation. Collectively, these studies demonstrated support for recent theoretical developments in political skill and reputation, suggesting that political skill is rooted in one's disposition, and that political skill demonstrates a significant impact on job performance, through reputation.

78. **Blickle, G., Meurs, J. A., Zettler, I., Solga, J. Noethen, D., Kramer, J., & Ferris, G. R. (2008). Personality, political skill, and job performance.** *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 72*(3), 377-387.

Drawing upon the socioanalytic perspective of performance prediction (Hogan, 1991; Hogan & Shelton, 1998), this research examined if motives to get along and to get ahead produced greater performance when combined with social effectiveness. Specifically, the authors explored the question of whether the Five-Factor model constructs of agreeableness and conscientiousness interacted with political skill (PS) to predict job performance. The researchers surveyed German workers and their supervisors, peers, and subordinates to elicit measures of PS and personality. Results from this study indicated an interaction of political skill and both agreeableness and conscientiousness in predicting job performance. Specifically, those with

lower PS showed a negative relationship between agreeableness and performance, while those higher in PS showed a positive relationship. Results for conscientiousness were surprising, indicating a negative relationship between conscientiousness and performance given high PS, but a positive relationship for medium and low PS. As with Treadway et al. (2005), the implications of this research are that political skill and political behavior are not universally beneficial, in this case because personality and political skill can interact in relationship to job performance.

79. Brouer, R. L., Duke, A., Treadway, D. C., & Ferris, G. R. (2009). The moderating effect of political skill on the demographic dissimilarity—leader-member exchange quality relationship. *The Leadership Quarterly, 20*(2), 61-69.

Leader–member exchange (LMX) theorists have long argued that similarity between supervisors and subordinates will lead to the development of higher quality LMX relationships. However, studies that have examined the impact of similarity on these relationships have found mixed results, suggesting the need to examine moderators. The purpose of the present study was to examine the impact of subordinates' political skill on the relationship between supervisor–subordinate racial similarity/dissimilarity (RSD) and the quality of LMX relationships. The sample consisted of 189 participants in a retail service organization. The results indicated that political skill is a significant moderator, and played a substantial role in LMX relationship quality for racially dissimilar supervisor–subordinate dyads. Specifically, when subordinates possessed low levels of political skill, they were less able to overcome racial dissimilarity and had the lowest levels of LMX quality. The take-away from this study is that potential conflict arising from racially dissimilar leader-follower pairs can be avoided or improved if the follower possesses political skill.

80. Blickle, G., Ferris, G. R., Munyon, T. P., Momm, T., Zettler, I., Schneider, P. B., & Buckley, M. R. (2011). A multi-source, multi-study investigation of job performance prediction by political skill. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 60*(3), 449-474.

Due to the concern over the use of peer-ratings of performance in personnel decisions, this research investigates the question of whether political skill as evaluated by a peer relates to job performance. Three studies were performed using both cross-sectional and longitudinal designs. In Study 1, targets selected assessors from a pool of their peers to rate their political skill. Results showed that ratings of political skill predicted job performance ratings, controlling for demographics, social contextual factors, and self-assessments. In Study 2, targets again selected a workplace peer to assess their political skill, but instead of a concurrent performance prediction design, performance (personal initiative) was assessed one year later. Results again supported the prediction of performance, controlling for demographics and self-assessments. Finally, in Study 3, two supervisors assessed the political skill and performance of a target. Results supported the research hypotheses, showing that political skill rated by Assessor 1 predicted each of a variety of performance facets rated by Assessor 2 and vice-versa. This study demonstrates a consistent positive relationship between peer-rated political skill and both current and future performance ratings.

Organizational Social Effectiveness:
An Annotated Bibliography

Appendix B: Measurement and Construct Development

Impression Management

> **81. Kipnis, D., Schmidt, S., & Wilkinson, I. (1980). Intraorganizational influence tactics: Explorations in getting one's way.** *Journal of Applied Psychology, 65*(4), 440-452.

This study used managers in the commercial sector as subjects to help identify influence tactics. In Study 1, managers wrote essays describing influence incidents which were content analyzed to identify discrete influence tactics. The resulting 370 tactics provided the foundation for a 58-item questionnaire. In Study 2, the questionnaire was administered and responses were analyzed for underlying factors. Eight dimensions of influence were identified: assertiveness, ingratiation, sanctions, exchange, rationality, upward appeals, blocking, and coalitions. The frequency of use for each is related to the relative power of the target, the reason for the influence attempt, the resistance of the target, the status of the actor, organizational size, and union status. This article does not focus explicitly on impression management. However, the influence tactics referred to herein include those later included in discussions of impression management.

> **82. Schriesheim, C. A., & Hinkin, T. R. (1990). Influence tactics used by subordinates: A theoretical and empirical analysis and refinement of the Kipnis, Schmidt, and Wilkinson Subscales.** *Journal of Applied Psychology, 75*(3), 246-257.

In this article, the authors explored the quality of six subordinate influence subscales developed by Kipnis, Schmidt, and Wilkinson (1980) and attempted to refine the subscales for future use in research. The six subscales included assertiveness, ingratiation, rationality, sanctions, exchange of benefits, upward appeal, blocking, and coalitions. Four investigations were conducted to assess the content validity and factor structure of each subscale. In the first sample, the subscale items were given to 34 experts who reviewed and judged them in terms of their dimensionality, resulting in a final set of 27 items. In the second sample, the items were administered to a sample of 251 Masters of Business Administration (MBA) students who were currently employed, with exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses conducted to identify where scales could be improved. A third sample included a similar group of 281 MBA students, with the same analyses conducted. Finally, a fourth sample was conducted with 181 clerks and secretaries, again with the same analyses conducted. Results identified several areas where improvement could be made (i.e., item deletions and additions). A revised set of scales containing 18 items divided into three items per each of the six dimensions was presented. The authors recommended that additional research be conducted to replicate and extend their findings. As with Kipnis, Schmidt, and Wilkinson (1980), this study refers to impression management tactics within the context of broader influence tactics, in this case those used by subordinates.

83. Kumar, K., & Beyerlein, M. (1991). Construction and validation of an instrument for measuring ingratiatory behaviors in organizational settings. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 76*(5), 619-627.

A measure of the frequency of employees' use of ingratiatory behavior at work was tested with a sample of 716 employees working in a wide variety of organizations and jobs. Pilot testing reduced a 65-item pool to a 24-item instrument with 4 factors: (1) other enhancement (e.g., "Impress upon your supervisor that only he/she can help you in a given situation mainly to make him/her feel good about himself/herself."); (2) opinion conformity (e.g., "Show him/her that you share his/her enthusiasm about his/her new idea even when you may not actually like it."); (3) self-presentation (e.g., "Try to let him/her know that you have a reputation for being liked."); and (4) favor-rendering (e.g., "Volunteer to help your supervisor in his/her work even if it means extra work for you."). Internal consistency reliability was .92; test–retest reliability over 1 month was .73. The authors concluded that evidence for content, convergent, and discriminant validity was substantial. This article presents an early instrument for assessing ingratiation, setting the stage for later work on ingratiation and other impression management tactics.

84. Rowatt, W. C. (1997). *Managing the impression of significant others: Other-monitoring scale development and validation.* **(Doctoral Dissertation). Retrieved from Dissertations & Theses. (AAT 9801890).**

This dissertation reports on the development and validation of the Other-Monitoring Scale (OMS), a measure of one's propensity manage the impressions of significant others (romantic or otherwise). Participants completed the scale and also responded to hypothetical scenarios in which they indicated their likelihood to attempt to repair a partner's impression after an impression threat (e.g., bad breath). The OMS correlated highly with ratings of repair likelihood, as did the three content-based subscales: Physical Appearance, Competence, and Exemplification. The OMS correlated positively with extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness, fear of negative evaluation, other-oriented perfectionism, dominance, desire for control, self-consciousness, problem-focused coping, and social skill. Analyses demonstrated that variables related to warmth (agreeableness and extraversion) and control (dominance, desire for control) accounted for unique variance in the OMS, suggesting these may be underlying motives for other-monitoring. OMS was the strongest predictor of a respondent's ratings of likelihood to attempt impression repair. Self-monitoring and social desirability also accounted for additional variance in impression repair likelihood. This article represents an early effort to refine concepts related to tendency to engage in impression management, such as Lee et al. (1999).

85. Harrison, A., Hochwarter, W., Perrewe, P., & Ralston, D. (1998). The ingratiation construct: An assessment of the validity of the Measure of Ingratiatory Behaviors in Organizational Settings (MIBOS). *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *83*(6), 932-943.

This study provided an assessment of the construct validity of the Measure of Ingratiatory Behaviors in Organizational Settings (MIBOS) scale, originally developed by Kumar and Beyerlein (1991). Four participant samples were used, including managerial personnel, members of professional organizations, clerical employees, and working students. Three conceptualizations were examined using confirmatory factor analysis. Alternative models included a four-factor conceptualization proposed by Kumar and Beyerlein; a 4-factor, 2nd-order conceptualization; and a unidimensional model. None of the models provided adequate support for the factor structure of the measure. Similarly, convergent and discriminant assessments failed to provide strong support for the validity of the scale. Overall, the study failed to support the validity of the MIBOS scale. The authors explained that more research needs to be conducted to understand the lack of validity but suggest poor item wording or problems with the theoretical framework of the scale as potential explanations. This article continues research efforts on ingratiation, as with Kumar and Beyerlein (1991).

86. Bolino, M. C., & Turnley, W. H. (1999). Measuring impression management in organizations: A scale development based on the Jones and Pittman taxonomy. *Organizational Research Methods*, *2*(2), 187-206.

This article described the development of an impression management (IM) scale based upon the taxonomy proposed by Jones and Pittman (1982). The taxonomy included the following five IM tactics: (1) self-promotion (when individuals point out their abilities or accomplishments in order to be seen as competent by observers), (2) ingratiation (when individuals do favors or use flattery to elicit an attribution of likability from observers), (3) exemplification (when people self-sacrifice or go above and beyond the call of duty in order to gain the attribution of dedication from observers), (4) intimidation (when people signal their power or potential to punish in order to be seen as dangerous by observers), and (5) supplication (when individuals advertise their weaknesses or shortcomings in order to elicit an attribution of being needy from observers). To develop the scale, student judges were first asked to verify the content validity of the initial 44-item scale. The scale was then administered to a sample of professionals, and an exploratory factor analysis was conducted. Based on the results, revisions to the scale were made. Subsequently, the revised scale was administered to a group of managers and exploratory factor analysis was again performed. The final 22-item version of the scale was administered to another sample of professionals and confirmatory factor analysis was performed. Finally, the convergent and discriminant validity of the scale was assessed using a sample of management students. The results support the taxonomy presented by Jones and Pittman. This scale continues to be a useful measurement instrument in research on IM.

87. Lee, S., Quigley, B., Nesler, M., Corbett, A., & Tedeschi, J. (1999). Development of a self-presentation tactics scale. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *26*(4), 701-722.

This article reports on the development of a measure for propensity to use certain self-presentation tactics. Four studies were carried out to develop a self-presentation tactics (SPT) scale to measure individual differences, examine the dimensions of self-presentation, and examine gender differences in self-presentation behavior. The final version of the SPT consisted of 63 items across 12 subscales: Excuse, Justification, Disclaimer, Self-handicapping, Apology, Ingratiation, Intimidation, Supplication, Entitlement, Enhancement, Blasting, and Exemplification. Two factors emerged in a confirmatory factor analysis: defensive and assertive tactics. Overall, the results of the four studies provided support for the scale's reliability (internal consistency and test-retest) and discriminant validity. Gender differences were evident for assertive tactics, with males more likely to use assertive tactics than females. There were no gender differences for defensive tactics. The factor analysis results in this scale development align with subsequent research (e.g., Bolino & Turnley, 2003) regarding the ways in which impression management tactics cluster in to groups.

88. Andrews, M. C., & Kacmar, K. M. (2001). Impression management by association: Construction and validation of a scale. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *58*(1), 142-161.

This article focused on indirect impression management (IM) tactics, whereby people manage impressions of themselves through their relationships with others. The authors developed and empirically validated a scale designed to tap into four indirect IM tactics: boasting (boasting about positive connections with favorable others), blurring (making strategic omissions to blur negative links with favorable others), blaring (publicizing relationships with favorable others), and burying (attempting to hide relationships with unfavorable others). To develop the scale, focus groups were held to generate the initial items, and subsequently, data collection sessions were held to explore and confirm the factor structure of the scale. Convergent and discriminant validity were supported using measures of self-monitoring, locus of control, need for power, and other measures of IM and influence (for discriminant validity). The four factor structure was upheld by the results, with some indications that burying and blaring factors functioned similarly. This scale brings an important alternative perspective on IM by assessing indirect tactics specifically.

Self-Monitoring

89. Snyder, M. (1974). Self-monitoring of expressive behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 30*(4)*, 526-537.*

This article established a theory of self-monitoring (SM) and discussed the development and validation of a new self-report measure of individual differences in SM. This theory of SM suggested that individuals vary in their ability to recognize cues in a social situation and react appropriately. The author argued that high self-monitors are able to monitor, control, and mold their affective states to fit a situation. However, low self-monitors tend to express their emotions as they feel them (regardless of the situation). The measure of SM subsequently created by Snyder consisted of 25 true-false, self-descriptive statements addressing five components of the construct: (a) concerns for appropriateness of social behavior, (b) attention to social comparison information, (c) the ability to control or modify one's self-presentation and expressive behavior, (d) the use of this ability in particular situations, and (e) the cross-situational variability of social behavior. Four studies were conducted to validate the measure and found positive results. Specifically, the measure was found to be internally consistent and displayed good discriminant validity, with more research needed to demonstrate generalizability. This scale was an important first step in measuring and conceptualizing the SM construct.

90. Furnham, A. F. & Capon, M. (1983). Social skills and self-monitoring processes. *Personality and Individual Differences, 4*(2), 171-178.*

This study reports on an investigation of Snyder's (1974) Self-Monitoring (SM) Scale. Specifically, the authors used three social-skill scales to create groups of socially skilled and unskilled participants. Results showed that these groups differed significantly in SM, with the social skilled group scoring higher. However, negative correlations were found between SM and three measures of social skill dysfunction. Finally, a factor analysis identified a four factor solution, calling into question the five *a priori* factors identified by Snyder. Results are discussed, particularly regarding the important distinction between perceptual sensitivity and behavioral flexibility as components of SM. This article builds on the Snyder (1974) scale, raising issues of construct dimensionality.

91. Lennox, R. D., & Wolfe, R. N. (1984). Revision of the self-monitoring scale. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 46*(6)*, 1349-1364.*

The purpose of this research was to present a revised version of Snyder's (1974) Self-Monitoring (SM) Scale. The authors' motive for revising this scale was that in prior research, the scale did not exhibit the same five-factor theoretical structure originally theorized by Snyder. According to Snyder (1974), his scale assessed five components: (a) concerns for appropriateness of social behavior, (b) attention to social comparison information, (c) the ability to control or modify one's self-presentation and expressive behavior, (d) the use of self-presentation ability in particular situations, and (e) the cross-situational variability of social behavior. However, results of a factor analysis demonstrated that this was not the case. Instead, the scale was consistently measuring three different factors: acting ability, extraversion, and

other-directedness. Of these, "other-directedness" was the only one that had any relation to Snyder's original five (i.e., attention to social comparison information). Four studies were then conducted to develop a more adequate and face valid measure of SM. The revised 13-item measure of SM consisted of two underlying subscales: ability to modify self-presentation (seven items), and sensitivity to expressive behavior of others (six items). This revised scale would stand as one of the definitive SM instruments for quite some time.

92. Cutler, B., & Wolfe, R. (1985). Construct validity of the Concern for Appropriateness Scale. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 49*(3), 318-323.

A multi-trait, multi-method approach was used to evaluate the construct validity of Lennox and Wolfe's Concern for Appropriateness Scale or CFA (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984). CFA was defined as the tendency to adopt a protective manner of self-presentation and is thus highly relevant to IM. In terms of the validation study, data was collected through self-ratings plus rating by peers. In addition to the CFA scale, other items measured included concern for appropriateness, susceptibility to boredom, and interpersonal trust. Results of the data collection showed convergent validity with the peer ratings. Furthermore, discriminant validity was found with the boredom susceptibility. Overall, this study provided a solid foundation for ensuring the validity of this measure, although additional research with different samples is needed to ensure its generalizability to different populations. This validity investigation expands the validity evidence for the Lennox and Wolfe scale (1984).

93. Snyder, M., & Gangestad, S. (1986). On the nature of self-monitoring: Matters of assessment, matters of validity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51*(1), 125-139.

This article addressed concerns about Snyder's Self-monitoring Scale (1974) and its ability to measure meaningful and interpretable individual differences. The authors re-assessed previous studies on self-monitoring (SM) and analyzed the internal structure of the 25 item scale. Results supported the scale's ability to measure meaningful and interpretable individual differences. However, the authors recognized a need for higher reliability in their measure. Therefore, the authors created a new, 18-item measure of SM. This measure was analyzed using data from past SM studies in order to determine its validity. Based on the results, the authors proposed that this new measure of SM was more factorially pure than the original measure. Like Lennox and Wolfe (1986) this scale became a standard instrument for investigating SM.

94. Nowack, W. & Kammer, D. (1987). Self-presentation: Social skills and inconsistency as independent facets of self-monitoring. *European Journal of Personality, 1*(2), 61-77.

This study examines the construct space of self-monitoring by re-analyzing the factors underlying Snyder's (1974) Self-Monitoring Scale (SMS). The authors conducted four studies with university students in Germany (the SMS was also a German adaptation). Factor analysis suggested two uncorrelated factors, social skills and inconsistency. Using these new factors to identify subscales, the authors demonstrated construct validity for each subscale. Measures of

self-perceived social and acting skills and interpersonal self-expression formed the Social Skills subscale. Measures of social anxiety, situational sensitivity and inconsistency, and attitude-expression discrepancies made up the Inconsistency subscale. This investigation expands on the concerns about dimensionality of the Snyder (1974) scale raised by Snyder and Gangestad (1986).

95. Shuptrine, F., Bearden, W., & Teel, J. (1990). An analysis of the dimensionality and reliability of the Lennox and Wolfe revised self-monitoring scale. *Journal of Personality Assessment 54*(3&4), 515-522.

The purpose of this study was to analyze and evaluate the Lennox and Wolfe Revised Self-Monitoring Scale (RSMS; 1984), namely by comparing this measure to Snyder's Self-Monitoring Scale (SMS; 1974). The authors defined high-self monitors as people who are very sensitive to the expression of others in social contexts and use these cues to manage their own behavior. In contrast, low-self-monitors were defined as guiding their behavior by means of their beliefs, personality, attitudes, and opinions. Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the SMS revealed three components: acting ability, extraversion, and other-directedness. The Lennox and Wolfe RSMS scale was designed to improve on the SMS, and contained the factors "ability to modify self-presentation" and "sensitivity to the expressive behavior of others." The results indicated support for the intended two-factor structure of the RSMS. Internal consistency reliability was reasonable, however, factor loadings of several items were low. Minimal overlap was found between the RSMS and SMS. The authors recommend that the subscales, as well as the total score, be included in any analysis. Concerns of dimensionality were not only a concern for the Snyder (1974) scale, but also for Lennox and Wolfe (1984), as discussed in this article.

96. Larkin, J. (1991). The implicit theories approach to the self-monitoring controversy. *European Journal of Personality, 5*(1)*, 15-34.*

The purpose of this article was to investigate the structure of the self-monitoring (SM) construct with an implicit theories approach. In Study 1, the authors investigated the way people perceive high and low self-monitors, as measured by Gangestad and Snyder's (1985) Self-Monitoring Scale (SMS), in terms of other personality traits. In Study 2, the Gangestad and Snyder scale was compared to Lennox and Wolfe's (1984) Revised Self-Monitoring Scale (RSMS) in terms of the resulting implicit personality theories. In Study 3, the authors sought to establish whether SM is a unitary entity or a combination of variables. Results indicated that the SMS and RSMS successfully distinguished between high self-monitors and low self-monitors on many scale dimensions. For the Gangestad and Snyder scale, high self-monitors were more cheerful, active, sociable, and flexible, but less sincere and honest than low self-monitors. Low self-monitors' responses revealed that they were perceived by others as more principled and trustworthy than high self-monitors. Low self-monitors were also perceived as shyer, less confident, less flexible, and less quick to adjust. They showed less concern for social appropriateness and social comparisons and their behavior varied less across contexts. Based on these results, Larkin questioned whether high-self monitors are exhibiting a form of social defensiveness and explores other details inherent in the scales' items. This study brings together

the two definitive scales of SM at the time and evaluates them side by side while examining the way high self-monitors, according to each scale, are viewed in terms of personality traits.

97. Gangestad, S. W., & Snyder, M. (2000). Self-monitoring: Appraisal and reappraisal. ***Psychological Bulletin, 126*(4)*, 530-555.***

This article addressed the controversy surrounding Snyder's (1974) Self-Monitoring Scale and whether it truly measures one unified construct, self-monitoring (SM). This was done by conducting a quantitative review of 41 articles which examined the relationship of SM with external criterion variables (e.g., expressive control, behavioral variability, interpersonal orientation, sensitivity to expectations). Results showed strong evidence for one conceptually meaningful dimension of SM (i.e., SM personality). The authors discussed the implications of their results and how they could be used to further the theory and research of SM. Overall, this study utilized a quantitative technique that allowed for the summation of past research regarding SM and illustrated that a wide range of external criteria appeared to tap a dimension that was measured by the Self-Monitoring Scale.

98. Day, D. V., Schleicher, D. J., Unckless, A. L., & Hiller, N. J. (2002). Self-monitoring personality at work: A meta-analytic investigation of construct validity. ***Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(2)*, 390-401.***

This meta-analysis examined the relationships between self-monitoring, personality, job performance and advancement, ability, leadership, organizational commitment, role stressors, job satisfaction, job involvement, sex, and age. Three different measures of SM were included: Snyder (1974), Gangestad and Snyder (1985), and Lennox and Wolfe (1984). The Lennox and Wolfe measure was found to be the most reliable of the three scales. Results found high self-monitors tended to do better on performance evaluations and were more likely to receive promotions than low self-monitors. High-self-monitors were also more likely to emerge as leaders based on outside observer ratings of leadership. Finally, men tended to have higher SM scores than women. This meta-analytic investigation is the latest in a line of research efforts to clarify the reliability and validity of the various SM scales.

Social Intelligence, Competence, & Effectiveness

99. **Schneider, R. J.** (1992). *An individual-differences approach to understanding and predicting social competence*. **(Doctoral Dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses. (AAT 9234018).**

This study took an individual differences approach to investigating social competence. Although prior research has often focused upon the amount of construct overlap between social intelligence and general intelligence, the author proposed that there is a clear enough distinction between the constructs to inspire future research. Moreover, the author suggested that research on the dimensionality of social competence implies that there are in fact multiple dimensions of the construct. Thus, the purpose of this dissertation was to address this multidimensionality issue. Following a bottom-up approach, a large number of operational indicators were developed and then tested to determine the dimensionality of social competence. Seven dimensions emerged: extraversion, warmth, social influence, social insight, social openness, social appropriateness, and social maladjustment. Each of these dimensions showed a unique pattern of correlations with personality and other individual difference variables. This research suggested that a broader view of social competence must be considered than what was originally assumed. Schneider's unpublished dissertation marks the beginning of much subsequent work on social competence. This dissertation contributes to the conceptualization of social competence as distinct from general intelligence and subsuming several dimensions.

100. **Zaccaro, S., Gilbert, J., Zazanis, M., & Diana, M.** (1995). *Investigating a background data measure of social intelligence* **(ARI Technical Report 1024). Alexandria, VA: United States Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences.**

This paper explored the construct validity of a measure that uses the life history of an individual ("background data") as a way to measure social intelligence (SI). The authors used peer rankings of an individual's performance effectiveness on a team as a criterion variable. A sample of 189 male U.S. Army Soldiers were surveyed to gather background measures of their SI using the Gilbert, Connelly, Mumford, and Zaccaro (1992) instrument. In addition, self-monitoring and two social intelligence subscales from an existing measure, cartoon predictions and social translations, were measured. Factor analysis revealed that items from interpersonal perception and system perception loaded on a factor, which the authors labeled "social perceptiveness." Behavioral flexibility items loaded onto two factors, which the authors identified as subcomponents of behavioral flexibility and labeled as "social flexibility" and "defensive rigidity." Furthermore, the study offered validity evidence for the SI measure, as it was not significantly associated with general intelligence, was convergent with other conceptually related measures, and demonstrated predictive validity with peer rankings of effective performance on a team. While preliminary in nature, these findings provide support for social intelligence as a unique construct, as well as its relation to performance in group settings.

101. **Schneider, R. J., Ackerman, P. L., & Kanfer, R. (1996). To "act wisely in human relations": Exploring the dimensions of social competence.** *Personality & Individual Differences, 21*(4), 469-481.

This article provides a brief review and states that cognitive ability and social competence are unique constructs. The authors propose that social competence is a measureable construct in need of a metric. In Study 1, undergraduates and professional level employees wrote descriptors of socially competent behavior. In Study 2, researchers reduced the data into groups of similarity and used factor analysis to create the Social Competence Questionnaire (SCQ). In Study 3, students completed the SCQ (72 items, 5 point Likert-type scale), as well as other personality scales and academic performance measures. Results indicated seven dimensions: extraversion, warmth, social influence, social insight, social openness, social appropriateness, and social maladjustment. A key conclusion of this research is that social competence is multidimensional, making it inappropriate to provide those who take the SCQ with a single 'social competence score' similar to the single IQ score that individuals are provided upon taking various intelligence tests. A profile approach to social competence is proposed because (a) social competence is a compound trait, all of whose dimensions do not covary, and (b) some social competence dimensions may be curvilinear such that, after an ideal point has been reached, higher standing on the dimension may hinder, rather than enhance, socially competent performance.

102. **Mayer, J. D., Caruso, D. R., & Salovey, P. (1999). Emotional intelligence meets traditional standards for an intelligence.** *Intelligence, 27*(4), 267-298.

The purpose of this series of studies was to investigate an instrument designed to assess emotional intelligence as a standard intelligence. The authors proposed that in order for emotional intelligence to be a standard intelligence, it must (1) be capable of being operationalized as a set of abilities; (2) meet certain correlational criteria, including intercorrelations among the subcomponents of the intelligence and correlation with established intelligences; and (3) develop with age and experience. The measure developed by the authors to be evaluated against these standards was the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS), which consisted of 12 subscales. The MEIS was administered in two studies with two different types of samples (i.e., 503 adults and 229 adolescents). Results of the studies illustrated that the MEIS met the three classical criteria of a standard intelligence. The key contribution of this research was that it provided support for the idea that emotional intelligence is in fact a standard intelligence that should be measured as such.

103. **Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., Caruso, D. R., & Sitarenios, G. (2001). Emotional intelligence as a standard intelligence.** *Emotion, 1*(3), 232-242.

The purpose of this article was to provide theoretical and empirical evidence in response to doubt that emotional intelligence meets the traditional standards that define intelligence. The authors summarized current literature regarding intelligence, emotion, and emotional intelligence (EI). One particular concern addressed was the measurement of EI, in particular the low correlation between two scoring methods of the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale

(MEIS), a measure of emotional intelligence (Mayer, et al., 1999). In response to this issue, the authors presented data that indicated different scoring methods actually converged at the $r = .98$ level. Furthermore, they argued that there is a theoretical explanation underlying the determination of correct answers to the MEIS. Furthermore, they provided empirical support for a revised version of the MEIS, the MSCEIT V2.0, which had stronger reliability at the subcomponent level than the MEIS. The authors closed their article with a call for future research regarding measurement of, and theory behind, emotional intelligence. This study expands on Mayer et al.'s previous (1999) work on establishing emotional intelligence as an equivalent form of standard intelligence.

104. **Silvera, D. H., Martinussen, M. & Dahl, T. I. (2001). The Tromsø Social Intelligence Scale, a self-report measure of social intelligence.** *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology, 42*(4), 313-319.

   Three studies were conducted to create and validate the Tromsø Social Intelligence Scale (TSIS). The authors proposed that SI is a multifaceted construct, including (1) perceptiveness of the moods and internal states of others, (2) ability to deal with other people, (3) knowledge of social life and social rules, (4) insight and sensitivity in complex social situations, (5) perspective-taking ability, (6) use of social skills to manipulate others, and (7) social adaptation skills. The first sample involved 14 professional psychologists acting as subject matter experts in identifying abilities most closely linked to social intelligence. The abilities included understanding others, understanding social contexts, taking others' perspectives, and predicting others' reactions. Conversely, creating a good first impression, intelligence, and being well-liked were not strongly related to social intelligence. The second sample tested a large pool of SI items, resulting in a 3-factor, 21-item scale. In the third sample, the stability of the TSIS was confirmed. In addition to the validation of the scale, these results indicated that SI may be based largely on cognitive skills and less on behavioral skills. Building on the momentum of social competence as an equivalent form of intelligence, this scale development presents a brief, dimensionally simple instrument for measuring social intelligence.

105. **Ferris, G. R., Perrewe, P. L., & Douglas, C. (2002). Social effectiveness in organizations: Construct validity and research directions.** *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies, 9*(1), 49-63.

   Social dynamics of interpersonal and group processes has been an area of investigation in organizational research for many years, as have the social effectiveness competencies that facilitate such process dynamics. Recently, an abundance of social effectiveness constructs have emerged. The purpose of this article was to provide a review of the nature of these various constructs, their construct validity, and their relationships with important work outcomes. Specific constructs examined included social intelligence, emotional intelligence, practical intelligence, self-monitoring, social skill, political skill, social competence, ego-resiliency, interpersonal intelligence, interpersonal acumen, functional flexibility, sociopolitical intelligence, and social self-efficacy. This review illustrated a high degree of overlap among the different constructs, while recognizing that some facets of the different constructs are unique. Therefore, it was proposed that future research is necessary to delineate the distinct and

overlapping components that make up social effectiveness, particularly from an empirical standpoint. Additionally, the authors argue that psychometrically valid measures of social effectiveness constructs are necessary to advance the science. This is a particularly critical point, as the review revealed that many measures of social effectiveness constructs exist, but a consolidation of these metrics is needed to more appropriately capture the construct of social effectiveness.

106. **Bradshaw, G., & Giesen, J. M. (2003).** *Dynamic measures of spatial ability, executive function, and social intelligence.* **(Technical Report) Arlington, VA: Office of Naval Research.**

This paper reported on the Navy's effort to improve its recruitment and retention of talented Sailors through the use of dynamic measures of spatial ability, executive function, and social intelligence. Six new measures were discussed, three of which were related to spatial abilities and three of which were related to executive functions. The measures were developed to be based on objective behaviors, an improvement over previous self-report measures of these constructs. A series of six experiments were conducted in order to assess the validity of these measures. The resulting factor analyses revealed that the measures were in fact distinct from previous ability tests, and were also correlated with several demographic variables. These results highlighted the potential use of such objective measures as a new way to assess constructs that have traditionally been measured via self-reports.

107. **Campbell, D., & Moore, K. (2003). The construction of a dual method (task and self-report) emotional intelligence instrument based on an integrated (personality and ability) model of emotional intelligence.** *Australian Journal of Psychology, 55, 224.*

In this paper, the authors argued that cognitive intelligence and social and emotional intelligence (SI/EI) are different constructs and that an individual can be high on one construct and low on the other. The authors discussed that while there much literature arguing that EI is more important to life success and satisfaction than is a high IQ, there is little solid empirical evidence to support this proposal. The authors further noted that assessments of EI are still divided between those focused on skills and those focused on traits/personality. The authors proposed to integrate these two models through the creation of a pilot instrument to assess EI. They proposed that this instrument improves upon existing instruments (to date) because it incorporates both task items and self-report.

108. **Carpenter, T. D. & Wisecarver, M. M. (2004).** *Identifying and validating a model of interpersonal performance dimensions.* **(ARI Technical Report No. 1141). Alexandria, VA: U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences.**

This report developed and validated a taxonomy of the interpersonal requirements of job performance. A literature review contributed to the development of a preliminary taxonomy. Two empirical studies were conducted to validate the proposed taxonomy. In Study 1, over 1,000 critical incidents obtained through a job analysis were content-analyzed, with each incident

sorted into the dimensions of the proposed taxonomy as a preliminary validation. In Study 2 the taxonomy was validated using 431 U.S. Army Soldiers from a range of military occupational specialties. Participants rated the importance of and time spent on a set of behaviorally-based items rooted in the taxonomy. These items reflected five higher-order dimensions, each with multiple sub-categories: energizing behavior, directing behavior, exchanging information, building and maintaining relationships, and staffing. Confirmatory factor analysis supported the validity of the taxonomic model. Results also indicated that the criticality of several dimensions of interpersonal performance increased with increasing enlisted ranks. The importance of the results toward the identification of predictors of interpersonal performance is discussed. This work does not directly involve the measurement of social intelligence. However, by carefully detailing the social dimensions of job performance in the Army, this work enables the development of instruments tailored specifically to social competence for the Army.

109. **Bar-On, R. (2006). The Bar-On model of emotional-social intelligence.** *Psicothema, 18*(**supplement**), **13-25.**

This paper provides a review of research on a model of emotional-social intelligence (ESI), including theoretical development and empirical support for the model. The author presents five components used to develop a measure (the EQ-i) to test the model. The underlying factors include self-regard, interpersonal relationship, impulse control, problem solving, emotional self-awareness, flexibility, reality-testing, stress tolerance, assertiveness, and empathy. Test-retest and internal consistency reliability evidence are provided, along with construct validity evidence. The author proposed that this model does not measure personality traits, because the factors change (increase) in the course of the average lifetime and can also be increased in a few weeks with training. In a workshop setting, those with the lowest starting EQ-i scores progressed the most. The author also presents empirical evidence supporting the model. Of particular interest, findings show that, for Air Force recruiters, the correlation between EQ-i score and job performance was high ($r = .53$). The author describes the most important aspects as: (1) self-awareness and self-acceptance; (2) awareness of the thoughts, feelings, and needs of others; (3) emotional management ability; (4) the ability to have realistic expectations and have a "correct perspective;" and (5) a positive disposition. This paper represents an alternative approach in this field wherein the notions of emotional and social intelligence are combined into one construct, rather than leaving them separate.

110. **Carpenter, T. D., Wisecarver, M. W., Deagle, E. A., & Mendini, K. G. (2005).** *Special Forces interpersonal performance assessment system* **(ARI Research Report 1833). Arlington, VA: U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences.**

This report discussed the development and validation of an interpersonal performance assessment system for Special Forces Soldiers based on a slightly modified version of the authors' interpersonal performance model (Carpenter & Wisecarver, 2004). U.S. Army Special Forces (SF) were chosen as the target group since interpersonal skills were deemed critical to their mission success. Based on guidance from an advisory board of SF Soldiers, several changes were made to the final assessment system. Changes included the exclusion of the *staffing*

category and the addition of *adapting to the social environment* as a factor within *building relationships*. Adapting to the social environment was defined as "adjusting one's actions to fit the social environment. This construct refers to instances when Soldiers need to alter the way they interact with others based on the situation" (p. 5). The assessment system was pilot tested using SF Soldiers, using primarily qualitative data. Results supported the system's reliability and validity, as well as usability and face validity. As with the work by Carpenter and Wisecarver (2004), this model of the social dimensions of performance in the Army's Special Forces enables the development of tailored measures of social competence.

111. **Riggio, R. E. (2005). The Social Skills Inventory (SSI): Measuring nonverbal and social skills. In V. Manusov (Ed.),** *The sourcebook of nonverbal measures: Going beyond words* **(pp. 25-33). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.**

This chapter summarizes the research conducted to develop the 90-item Social Skills Inventory. The SSI conceptualizes social skill as consisting of basic/nonverbal emotional skills and more complex/verbal social skills. The SSI framework includes six scales: emotional and social expressivity, emotional and social sensitivity, and emotional and social control. The authors describe the many disciplines on which the instrument was based, including nonverbal encoding/decoding, impression management, self-monitoring, and social intelligence. This inventory may be useful for those in need of a scale conceptualizing social competence as having both basic emotional skills and more complex social skills.

112. **Van Rooy, D.L., Viswesvaran, C., & Pluta, P. (2005). An evaluation of construct validity: What is this thing called emotional intelligence?** *Human Performance, 18*(4), 445–462.

This article presented a meta-analytic review of the emotional intelligence (EI) construct. This meta-analysis had two primary foci, with the first being the relation between EI measures based on two differing models of the construct (i.e., mixed and ability). Mixed models of EI frame the construct as a conglomeration of traits, dispositions, skills, competencies, and abilities. The ability model, however, frames the construct solely as a distinct form of intelligence, with a much greater focus on the cognitive component. The second focus of the meta-analysis was the connection of each of the models separately with general intelligence and the Big Five personality factors. Results from 58 studies indicated that measures based on the mixed model of EI overlapped extensively (intercorrelation of $r = .71$), whereas mixed measures and ability measures were more distinct (intercorrelation of $r = .14$). Mixed model measures of EI showed more overlap with personality than with ability-based EI measures, while ability-based EI measures had a higher correlation with cognitive ability ($r = .34$) than with mixed measures ($r = .14$). Finally, ability-based measures were most strongly related to the personality dimensions of *agreeableness* and *openness to experience*, while the mixed measures were highly correlated with all personality variables. These results suggest that the two models of EI are not necessarily measuring the same thing, but instead may have unique utility and value given the context in which they are used. Specifically, the mixed model may be most appropriate for selection settings, whereas the ability model may be best suited for developmental domains. This review provides insight on the body of available emotional intelligence measures and how they relate to

each other. It may be most useful in determining what kind of measurement model is most appropriate for a given purpose.

113. **Heggestad, E. (2008). A really big picture view of social intelligence [Review of the book *Social intelligence: The new science of human relationships*, by D. Goleman]. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 90*(1), 102-104.**

Heggestad's review of Goleman's (2006) book on social intelligence (SI) notes that rather than being an investigation of SI, the book explored a "whole range of topics emanating from the field of social neuroscience." Heggestad notes that many researchers see SI as conceptually related to, but different from, social skill, social competence, social self-efficacy, self-monitoring, interpersonal intelligence, and political skill. Furthermore, Heggestad proposes that the literature associated with the broadly defined social effectiveness domain remains disjointed. Given this lack of clarity in the literature, it was expected that Goleman's book would provide more clarity to the topic. However, according to the review, Goleman's book contributed to this disappointing situation by conflating SI, social effectiveness, and social competence. Also, Goleman's book is said to lack empirical grounding, potentially hindering its relevance and applicability. In closing his review, Heggestad acknowledges that the entire field of SI is messy. Specifically, aptitudes and traits are not distinguished, the relationship between SI and emotional intelligence is unclear, and a lack of validation of many assertions. Heggestad concludes with recommendations for progress in the field. This review is included in order to demonstrate the areas in which the social intelligence field is still in conflict with itself over issues of construct scope and clarity.

114. **Heggestad, E. D., & Morrison, M. J. (2008). An inductive exploration of the social effectiveness construct space. *Journal of Personality, 76*(4), 839-874.**

While the social effectiveness literature is extensive, there has been no agreement regarding the precise facets that comprise the social effectiveness domain. The purpose of this study was to inductively explore the relationships between a set of social effectiveness measures with the intention of identifying an initial set of dimensions that comprise social effectiveness. Surveys containing 37 social effectiveness scales were administered to 247 undergraduate students. An exploratory factor analysis of the Social Competence Inventory (SCI, Schneider, 2001) resulted in the identification of four factors: Social Potency, Social Appropriateness, Social Emotional Expression, and Social Reputation. A subsequent joint factor analysis between the SCI and a set of extant measures resulted in the identification of the same four factors. A fifth factor emerged when a set of scales from an emotional intelligence measure was included in the analysis, suggesting that emotional intelligence is not captured within the common factor space defined by measures of social effectiveness. This study represents a step forward in the establishment of a set of common social effectiveness dimensions.

115. **Wu, Y. (2008).** *Social skill in the workplace: What is social skill and how does it matter?* **(Doctoral Dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses. (AAT 3371108).**

This dissertation reports on work related to the construct of social skill. Specifically, the author develops a model of the construct and its facets while also developing a measurement scale. Social skill is defined as a malleable trait learned throughout life that allows individuals to accomplish social goals. The author's proposed construct model posits social skill as a higher-order construct consisting of three facets. The first, social presentation, involves the ability to present oneself in a socially appropriate manner. Second is social scanning, the ability to perceive changes in a dynamic social environment. Third, social flexibility represents the ability to adjust one's behavior in line with demands of social situation. The author links these facets to several previous frameworks of similar social skill constructs. Three studies were conducted to develop a measure based on this model and investigate antecedents and consequences. Regarding antecedents, self-monitoring and extraversion were significantly related to the author's measure of social skill. Consequences of high social skill included greater amount of mentors, mentoring received, social support, organizational citizenship behaviors, and job performance. This dissertation presents a new model and measurement instrument for examining social skill from the perspective of a learned competence, rather than a more static level of intelligence.

116. **Austin, E. J. (2010). Measurement of ability emotional intelligence: Results for two new tests.** *British Journal of Psychology, 101*(3)*,* 563-578.

Emotional intelligence (EI) has received increasing attention as a construct in recent years. The purpose of this research was to explore two new ability-based measures of EI, the Situational Test of Emotion Management (STEM) and the Situational Test of Emotional Understanding (STEU). These measures were developed based on the assumption that EI is a cognitive ability not captured by traditional intelligence tests, but is comprised of emotional reasoning and problem solving. It was hypothesized that the STEM and STEU scores would be positively and significantly correlated with the Managing Emotion and Understanding Emotion subscales of the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso EI test (MSCEIT). STEM and STEU scores were also expected to relate to two other established emotion perception tests based on facial emotion recognition. The MSCEIT and emotion perception tests were selected to determine STEU and STEM validity as individuals scoring high in these other tests were expected to have high emotional intelligence. Additionally, it was expected that the STEM, STEU, and MESCEIT scores would be positively correlated with traditional cognitive ability test scores, and not significantly correlated with a traditional measure of trait EI (i.e., the TEIQue). Using 339 undergraduate students, researchers administered all of the previously described tests, as well as several control variables. The results illustrated that only the STEU and the MSCEIT understanding emotions subscale were significantly correlated with the traditional cognitive ability measure. This finding suggested that understanding emotions may be a new intelligence component. The STEU and MSCEIT's understanding emotions subscale were also correlated with the emotion perception tests. Furthermore, STEM and STEU scores were positively correlated with MSCEIT total score and most subscale scores. Finally, the STEM and STEU were not significantly correlated with the trait EI test, confirming the distinctness of trait and ability EI.

Political Skill

117. **Frink, D., & Ferris, G. (2003).** *Personal and structural influences on performance in dynamic environments: An investigation of social skill / intelligence and social contingencies*. **(Technical Report). Arlington, VA: Office of Naval Research.**

        The purpose of this research was to develop a measure of social skills in organizations and to demonstrate convergent and discriminant validity for measures of the social skill construct. The study sought to increase understanding of how individuals with different social skill sets reacted differently to feedback about their professional performance. The instrument developed was the Political Skill Inventory (PSI; see also Ferris et al. 2005), an 18-item measure assessing four dimensions: social astuteness, networking ability, interpersonal influence, and apparent sincerity. The findings concluded that political skill was modestly correlated with personality, self-monitoring, and emotional intelligence. In contrast, social astuteness, a dimension of political skill, was strongly related to self-monitoring, conscientiousness, and political savvy, while networking ability was found to be strongly related to influence tactics. The authors proposed that this research was a step forward in understanding the underlying components of social skill, but additional research is warranted to further clarify relevant constructs. This study was the first effort by Ferris into measuring political skill, which would lead to an influential line of research on the Political Skill Inventory first described here, but developed more in Ferris and colleagues (2005).

118. **Ferris, G. R., Treadway, D. C., Kolodinsky, R. W., Hochwarter, W. A., Kacmar, C. J., Douglas, C., & Frink, D. D.** (2005). **Development and validation of the political skill inventory.** *Journal of Management, 31*(1)*, 126-152.*

        The purpose of this research was to examine the conceptualization and measurement of the political skill construct and to provide validation evidence for the Political Skill Inventory (PSI). Given the important role of political skill in organizations, it is vital that there exist a measure of political skill that possesses good reliability and validity. The PSI was designed to be multidimensional in nature, including the following four dimensions of political skill: (1) social astuteness, or the ability to observe and be attuned to others in diverse social situations; (2) interpersonal influence, or a personal style that involves exerting influence on others; (3) networking ability, or the ability to develop and utilize diverse networks of people; and (4) apparent sincerity, or a level of integrity, authenticity, sincerity, and genuineness. In order to test the validity of this measure, a series of studies were designed by the authors to test the convergent, divergent, and predictive validity of the PSI. The results of three investigations, involving seven samples ranging in population type, demonstrated consistency of the factor structure across studies, construct validity, and criterion-related validity of the PSI. As hypothesized, political skill was positively related to self-monitoring, political savvy, and emotional intelligence. Political skill was negatively related to trait anxiety and not correlated with general mental ability. Also, the PSI predicted performance ratings of managers in two samples. From this study, it appears that the PSI is an effective measure of political skill that can be used in future studies of the construct. This scale is the definitive measure of organizational political skill and this article describes its development and initial validation effort.

119. **Coole, D. R. (2007).** *Expansion and validation of the Political Skill Inventory (PSI): An examination of the link between charisma, political skill, and performance.* **(Doctoral Dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses. (AAT 3260051)**

This dissertation reports on a re-examination of the factorial foundation of the Political Skill Inventory (PSI; Ferris et al., 2005). The author redefines the construct facets of political skill and develops a new measure of charisma. In Study 1, a confirmatory factor analysis supported a three-factor structure, including networking and charisma as separate factors and the PSI's other subscales of social astuteness, interpersonal influence, and apparent sincerity as a single factor. Study 1 results also revealed a positive relationship between political skill, charisma, and organizational citizenship behaviors. Having developed a separate Charisma scale, in Study 2, the author collected validity evidence from a sample of professional employees and their coworkers and supervisors. Evidence for divergent and convergent validity was mixed. Predictive validity evidence for political skill was found in relation to overall, task, and contextual performance. Charisma added incremental prediction of overall and task performance. Of all the political skill sub-dimensions, charisma and social astuteness were the most predictive of performance criteria. These dimensions also interacted, such that social astuteness predicted performance better for employees low in charisma. This dissertation expands on the work of Ferris et al. (2005) on the Political Skill Inventory.

120. **Ferris, G. R., Blickle, G., Schneider, P. B., Kramer, J., Zettler, I., Solga, J., Noethen, D., & Meurs, J. A. (2008). Political skill construct and criterion-related validation: A two-study investigation.** *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 23*(7), 744-771.

This article reports on two studies designed to confirm the factor structure of the Political Skill Inventory (PSI; Ferris et al., 2005) and collect criterion-related validity evidence on political skill as a mediator between dispositional and developmental antecedents and career-related consequences. In Study 1, participants provided self- and other-assessments of political skill. Confirmatory factor analyses supported the fit of a model with a first-order latent factor for each dimension indicated by the self- and other-rated dimension scales and a second-order latent factor of overall political skill indicated by the four first-order latent factors. This evidence supports the factor structure of the political skill construct and provides evidence for the validity of self-reports of political skill. This factor structure was replicated in Study 2. Furthermore, mediation analyses demonstrated that political skill mediated the relationship between self-efficacy and attained position, extraversion and career satisfaction, and mentoring and income. Validation and clarifying dimensional structure are ongoing processes for any scale. This article represents the continued work on refining and understanding the PSI (Ferris et al., 2005).